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ABSTRACT

With the intent of developing plans for improving police training at all levels within the New York City Police Department, this project reviewed and evaluated the training and performance received at the municipal academy. Specific objectives of the project were to develop a model training program for staff at all levels, develop plans for recruiting more civilians to the faculty, and create a system for evaluating the effectiveness of training by measuring on-the-job performance as a function of training. Recommendations that emerged from this project are stated in the major categories of basic policy commitments, recruit training, organizational recommendations, and inservice training. Supplementary information pertinent to the study, including a bibliography and abstracts of consultants' reports, is appended. (GEB)

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Police Training and Performance Study

NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF LAW ENFORCEMENT
AND CRIMINAL JUSTICE

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Police Training and Performance Study

PR 70–4
SEPTEMBER 1970

Submitted to
the New York City Police Department
by the Project Staff

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This project was supported by grant No. 339 awarded by the Attorney General under the Law Enforcement Assistance Act of 1965 to the New York City Police Department, New York, N.Y.

For the most part, persons outside the New York City Police Department were commissioned to carry out the study. The recommendations contained in this report are those of the project staff, not of the New York City Police Department to whom they are directed. Persons undertaking projects under Government sponsorship are encouraged to express freely their professional judgment, findings, and conclusions. Therefore, points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent the official position or policy of the U.S. Department of Justice or of the New York City Police Department.

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Biographical sketches of the project staff, consultants to the project, and the support staff are presented in appendix C.

Foreword

The Kerner Commission report in its discussion on the police and the community eloquently described the extraordinary and difficult problems faced by the police:

> His role is one of the most difficult in our society. He must deal directly with a range of problems and people that test his patience, ingenuity, character and courage in ways that few of us are ever tested.

And the Task Force on the Police of the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice has said:

> It is obviously difficult and often impossible for police officers to respond in an appropriate manner to the numerous incidents called to their attention. They are under constant pressure • • • to handle a volume of cases that are beyond their capacity • • • They lack adequate training with respect to some of the more complex social problems. And there has been little effort to provide individual officers with the guidelines which they require if they are expected to make more effective and judicious decisions in disposing of the incidents which come to their attention. In the absence of adequate resources, training and guidance, the tendency is for individual police officers to attempt to meet largely by improvisation the varied demands made upon them.

Both Commissions have recommended police training guidelines and have placed particular emphasis on the need for training programs that prepare recruits to exercise discretion properly and to understand the community, the role of the police, and what the criminal justice system can and cannot do.

The "Police Training and Performance Study" by the New York City Police Department (NYCPD) was conducted within the framework of the Commissions' recommendations and the accepted premises that an effective training program must be based on a complete and accurate knowledge of what a policeman does, how the policeman views his role in society, and how the community views the role of the police. Accordingly, incident reports and cumulative printouts of the 20th precinct (an experimental laboratory precinct) were studied in the effort to relate training to police work, and "public opinion" and "trait image" surveys of recruits, instructors, and experienced officers were administered.

A major portion of the resources of this project was devoted to the structuring of a new curriculum for recruits because of the conviction of the research staff that the first educational and training experience will have a critical and lasting effect on the entire career of the police officer. To this end, the curriculum was designed as a series of educational situations through which the recruit is effectively prepared for the numerous and varied incidents and problems he will experience as a policeman.

The most critical period in the career of a policeman must be the one immediately following training, when he first assumes his duties as a full-fledged patrolman. The newly assigned recruit may feel insecure in his new uniform, with its significance for the role he is to perform and which distinguishes him from his familiar role of that of the citizen. He may adopt a variety of behavior patterns, many of which do not exemplify ideal police performance. His job performance is handicapped by emotionally charged situations which disrupt his academically learned procedures. Shortcomings in the latter emerge in the form of gaps which are those elements of job performance regarded by the instructor as either too trivial to mention or so generally known that he assumes the student knows them. To overcome these initial shortcomings the research staff recommended that recruits be accompanied during the three field training periods of the curriculum by experienced patrolmen who have been carefully selected for their dedication and other desirable personal attributes and have completed an intensive training course to fit them for their roles as escort officers. The painstaking selection of the training escort represents an important difference between the proposed program and the randomly selected trainer-

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coach methods which have been employed in New York and other U.S. cities.

The recommendation for instituting an escort officer program is one of a broad spectrum of recommendations that emerged from this research project. The report also contains comparative studies of recruit training and firearms training at other police agencies which may be useful to municipal police agencies as an evaluative source and a guideline for the updating of current training and the creation of new police training programs; and a very extensive bibliography of publications in the areas of training that may provide a useful reference source for training officers and police administrators.

Irving Slott
Acting Director, National
Institute of Law
Enforcement and
Criminal Justice
September, 1970

Summary

Objectives of the Project

This project has the objective of reviewing and evaluating police training and performance in the Nation's largest municipal training academy. The project has sought to develop plans for improving the police training at all levels within the New York City Police Department. The statement of objectives, as specified in grant No. 339 awarded by the Attorney General, U.S. Department of Justice to the New York City Police Department on on April 16, 1968, included the development of a model training program for staff at all levels; the development of plans for recruiting more civilians to the faculty of the police academy; and the creation of a system for evaluating the effectiveness of training by measuring actual on-the-job performance as a function of training. During a period of 15 months the project staff conducted research on the several aspects of the project objectives. The project staff interpreted these objectives broadly and sought to evaluate the major requirements of the New York City Police Department in education and training. These requirements were evaluated in light of training concepts and standards recommended by the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, in relation to progressive educational philosophies and practices, and in relation to the historical experience and operational structure of the New York City Police Department. In net, the project staff, with the assistance of a group of distinguished consultants and with the essential assistance of members of the New York City Police Department, as well as many other law enforcement agencies, has sought to structure a training program which could be viewed as a total educational experience. In this sense, the recommendations should be viewed as a total pattern designed to carry the police officer through a sequence of relevant educational and training situations from the day of appointment as a probationary patrolman through the achievement of high command rank.

Operational Aspects of Project Recommendations

The authorized structure of the New York City Police Department exceeds 31,000 sworn personnel. There has been a dramatic growth in strength in recent years. As late as 1949 the authorized strength was only 18,800. Present and anticipated patterns of strength and personnel replacement demand suggest that the police academy will need to process about 2,500 recruits a year during the next decade. It would appear reasonable to expect that by 1975 total sworn personnel of the Department would be approximately 36,000. At this level, a 2,500 annual input would approximately balance the anticipated personnel replacement demand.

Historically, the input of recruits to the academy has been erratic, reflecting policy decisions to increase police manpower in response to existing circumstances as well as the availability of funding. Continuity of training has, on occasion, been interrupted in response to emergencies, especially during the summer months. Such interruptions, as well as sharp variations in the number of recruits in training, not only have an adverse effect on the educational process but also present major difficulties for the teaching staff of the academy. Consequently, major recommendations are made to stabilize the recruit training process. The implementation of these recommendations is essential if a professionally trained civilian teaching staff is to be recruited and added to the present police faculty of the academy.

Clearly, certain recommendations of this project relate to departmental policies and practices and can be implemented by directive. Others require major budgetary decisions. In view of the urgent need for excellence in the education and training procedures of the New York City Police Department in response to community demands for improved police services, it is recommended that the appropriate time sequence for implementing major policy changes be the third quarter of 1970. It is anticipated that basic implementation of the recommendations requiring budgetary action be July 1, 1971. All the recommendations of the project are designed to assist the police commissioner in his objectives of adequate quantitative and qualitative manpower development necessary for carrying out the statutory responsibilities of the police department.

Recommendations

Because of the broad spectrum of recommendations emerging from this research project, it is appropriate to summarize the recommendations in major categories.

Basic Policy Commitments

A continuing commitment, explicitly embodied in a departmental directive, is necessary to assure the priority of uninterrupted training for recruits. Such commitment should recognize the importance of the total educational experience which will be provided to the recruit through the new curriculum.

Stability in the recruit training cycle is essential if a police-civilian instructional staff is to be utilized. It is recommended that new recruits be phased into the academy in increments of approximately 500 every 10 weeks during a year, beginning July 1, 1971. This will require a commitment by budgetary authorities, without which the recruitment and maintenance of a dedicated and competent professional civilian staff will be impossible. Reasonable stability in the size of the new recruit increment is necessary to permit the escort training aspect of the new curriculum to be effective.

Recruit Training

In pursuit of excellence in the training of recruits, in terms of their ability to assimilate, personal attitudes, and specific shortcomings in basic written and spoken communication skills, the new curriculum, as a total educational experience is phased with continuing interaction of academy and field experience and is also supported by recommended new services, such as a counseling center and a remedial educational unit.

The intensification and humanization of the educational experience under the new recruit curriculum is accomplished by three units of field experience preceded and followed by recruit interaction. The group leaders and escort officers perform a crucial role in the educational process and will constitute a training team.

A team of civilian professional personnel, teaching behavioral and social science units as well as units in law, and civilian professional counselors will be added to the academy staff.

The law component of the recruit curriculum will be intensified by introducing mini courses which will cover selected aspects of the laws which are directly relevant to a patrolman's field duties.

In order to effectively implement existing departmental policies, a course unit in criminalistics is included in the curriculum which will stress training of recruits in crime scene operations and practical criminalistics.

The use of dramatization and small group discussions as a technique for developing interpersonal skills and decisionmaking effectiveness is made a part of the recruit curriculum which will be implemented by a human skills training unit in the police academy, consisting of professionally trained civilians and police officers.

The physical training component of the recruit curriculum will consist of three phases—basic physical conditioning, physical training and police techniques, and unarmed defense techniques. The new 126-hour program wll require less time than the current curriculum unit. The terminal nature of recruit physical training would be deemphasized as a matter of department policy, and incentives would be instituted to encourage physical conditioning throughout the police career. Physical training programs would be integrated with other facets of police training.

The recruit firearms training program will be revised from 56 hours spread over 16 weeks to 48 hours (40 hours consecutively in phase II of training and an 8-hour refresher course in phase IV). The recruit will not be armed until he successfully completes a week of firearms training.

A substantial unit in the behavioral and social sciences will be taught by professionally trained civilians stressing a study of the urban environment, criminology, sociology, psychology, and the principles and applications of ethics.

Organizational Recommendations

It is recommended that a new position be created in the police department designated "Director of Education and Training." This position will be filled by a distinguished professional educator who will report directly to the chief of personnel and serve as his adviser on matters of education. The director will be responsible for effective development, and maintenance of educational standards throughout the department. He will advise and assist in curriculum development, teaching methods development, recruitment and selection of civilian staff engaged in teaching and support services. A member of the department will remain in the role of Commanding Officer of the Police Academy, also reporting to the chief of personnel, with, however, expanded responsibility, such as that which the escort training function will create. It is recommended that the rank of Commanding Officer, Police Academy be higher than that of the incumbent, who presently holds the rank of deputy inspector.

Creation of the following units within the Police Academy is recommended:

(*a*) Administrative unit;

(*b*) Recruit class leaders unit—consisting of sergeants—assigned on a rotating basis to the group leader role;

(*c*) Escort officers unit—consisting of patrolmen selected to accompany recruits during the field training phases of the recruit curriculum;

(*d*) Behavioral and social sciences unit;

(*e*) Human skills training unit;

(*f*) Police science education unit;

(*g*) Legal education unit;

(*h*) Physical training unit;

(*i*) Firearms training unit;

(*j*) Field evaluation unit.

Support services to the Police Academy will be established, consisting of: (*a*) Counseling center; (*b*) remedial education unit; (*c*) educational materials development unit.

All existing units in the Police Academy will be absorbed into the above structure.

A field training program designated as the "Escort Training Program" will be established, implemented, and staffed by carefully selected patrolmen, whose function will be to accompany, counsel, and guide the recruit during his field training periods.

A counseling service for recruits is to be a support service in the Police Academy, staffed by professionally trained counseling psychologists.

The establishment of a field evaluation unit at the Police Academy is recommended. This unit will have the continuing responsibility to evaluate the field phase of recruit training and to identify training needs in relation to performance. This unit will, where appropriate, undertake to monitor the opinion of civilians who have come in contact with police services. The work of this unit will be completely distinct from individual evaluation of personnel.

Inservice Training

The unit training program, essentially the only program providing regular inservice refresher training to the entire patrol force (aside from specialized training), will be improved and expanded. Therefore, priority will be given to unit training. Enhanced status will be given to unit training sergeants, who will be assigned to the Police Academy and detailed to field commands on a rotating basis. Training sergeants will participate in the production of unit training memos, telecasts and training bulletins, administration of the escort training program, and will accept greater training responsibilities. More training telecasts, more frequent training sessions and innovations in techniques of presentation are recommended. All members of the force will have access to printed materials.

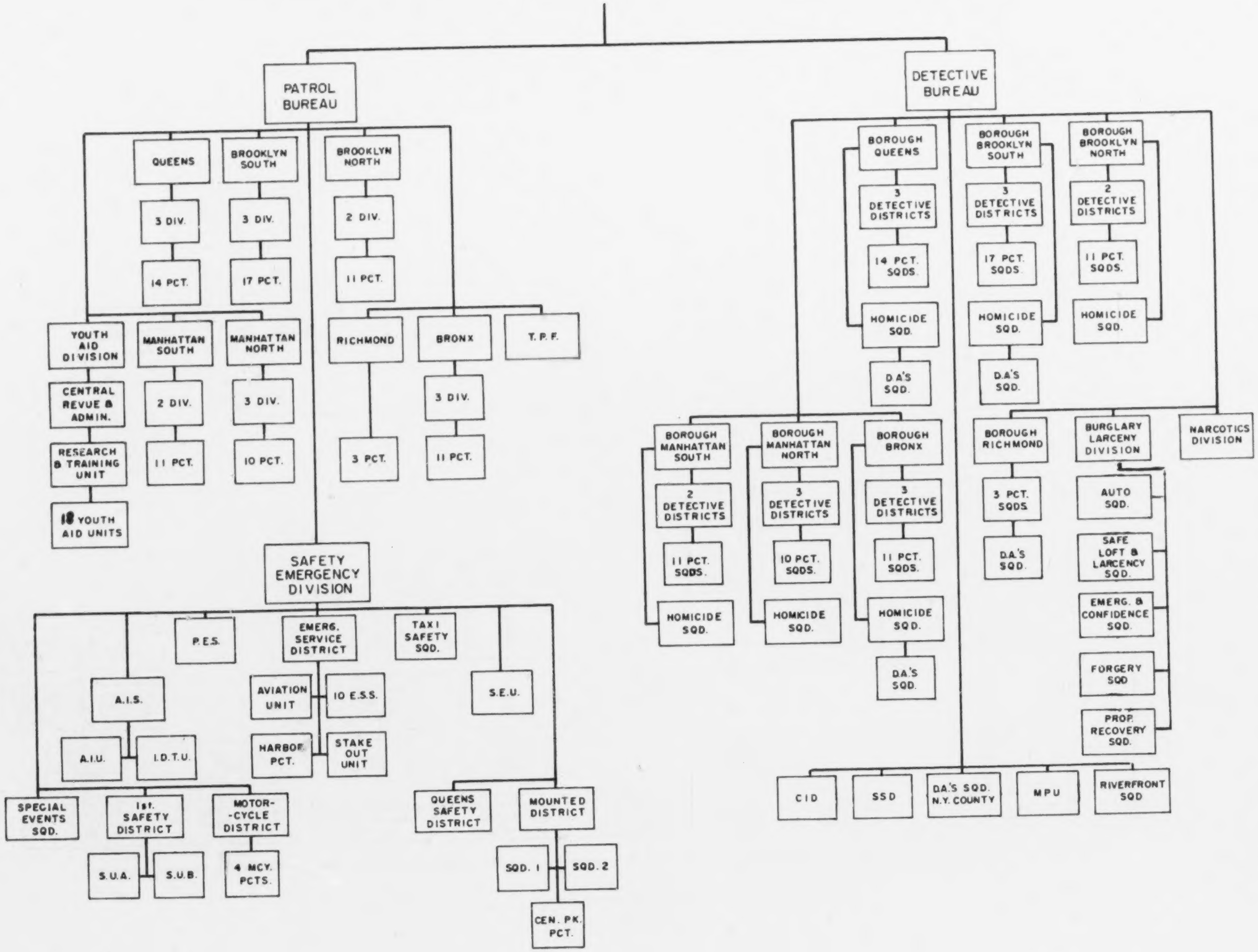
Unit training sergeants will be rotated between the Police Academy (their assigned command) and the field command to which they have been detailed. When at the Police Academy, they will instruct in one of the training programs. They will serve on various committees, such as curriculum, training techniques, and policies, and will, while detailed to field commands, meet with staff currently assigned to the academy monthly.

A systematic and progressive set of educational requirements for all ranks is recommended, including a policy decision that officers eligible for promotion should meet specific collegiate educational requirements. These requirements, in terms of academic degree achievement, will be related to an extended and phased timetable. Specific incentives are recommended.

Supplementary Recommendations

To introduce the utmost realism into training processes, particularly for recruits, a simulated city street should be constructed, or acquired, which will provide not only street situations for training, but also suitably furnished rooms for the acting-out of decisionmaking situations.

Specific proposals in the area of programed instruction and computer-assisted instruction are recommended on an experimental basis. It is anticipated that in these areas funding will be sought from appropriate agencies to permit the development of self-instruction materials and techniques which will permit recruits, in appropriate course units, to proceed to a differential speed in the learning process. The implementation of such developmental procedures will be a responsibility of the educational materials development unit, which is one of the new support services recommended for the Police Academy.


PATROL BUREAU
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BROOKLYN SOUTH
3 DIV.
17 PCT.
BROOKLYN NORTH
2 DIV.
11 PCT.
YOUTH AID DIVISION
CENTRAL REVUE & ADMIN.
RESEARCH & TRAINING UNIT
18 YOUTH AID UNITS
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STAKE OUT UNIT
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SPECIAL EVENTS SQD.
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QUEENS SAFETY DISTRICT
MOUNTED DISTRICT
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DETECTIVE BUREAU
BOROUGH QUEENS
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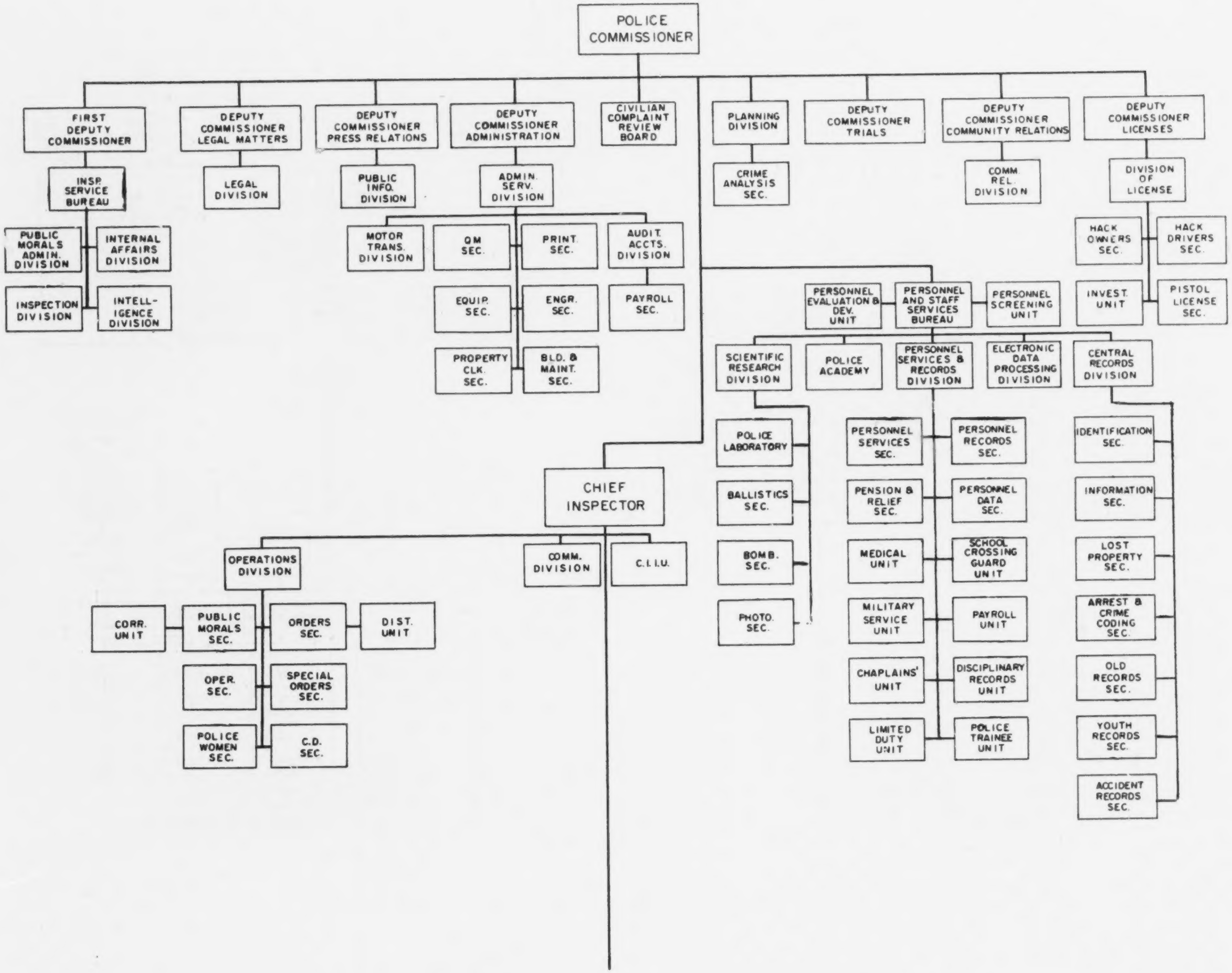
SAFE LOFT & LARCENY SQD.
EMERG. & CONFIDENCE SQD.
FORGERY SQD
PROP. RECOVERY SQD.
NARCOTICS DIVISION
CID
SSD
D.A.'S SQD. N.Y. COUNTY
MPU
RIVERFRONT SQD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FIRST DEPUTY COMMISSIONER
INSP. SERVICE BUREAU
PUBLIC MORALS ADMIN. DIVISION
INTERNAL AFFAIRS DIVISION
INSPECTION DIVISION
INTELL-IGENCE DIVISION
DEPUTY COMMISSIONER LEGAL MATTERS
LEGAL DIVISION
DEPUTY COMMISSIONER PRESS RELATIONS
PUBLIC INFO. DIVISION
DEPUTY COMMISSIONER ADMINISTRATION
ADMIN. SERV. DIVISION
MOTOR TRANS. DIVISION
QM SEC.
PRINT. SEC.
AUDIT ACCTS. DIVISION
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HACK OWNERS SEC.
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INVEST. UNIT
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PERSONNEL EVALUATION & DEV. UNIT
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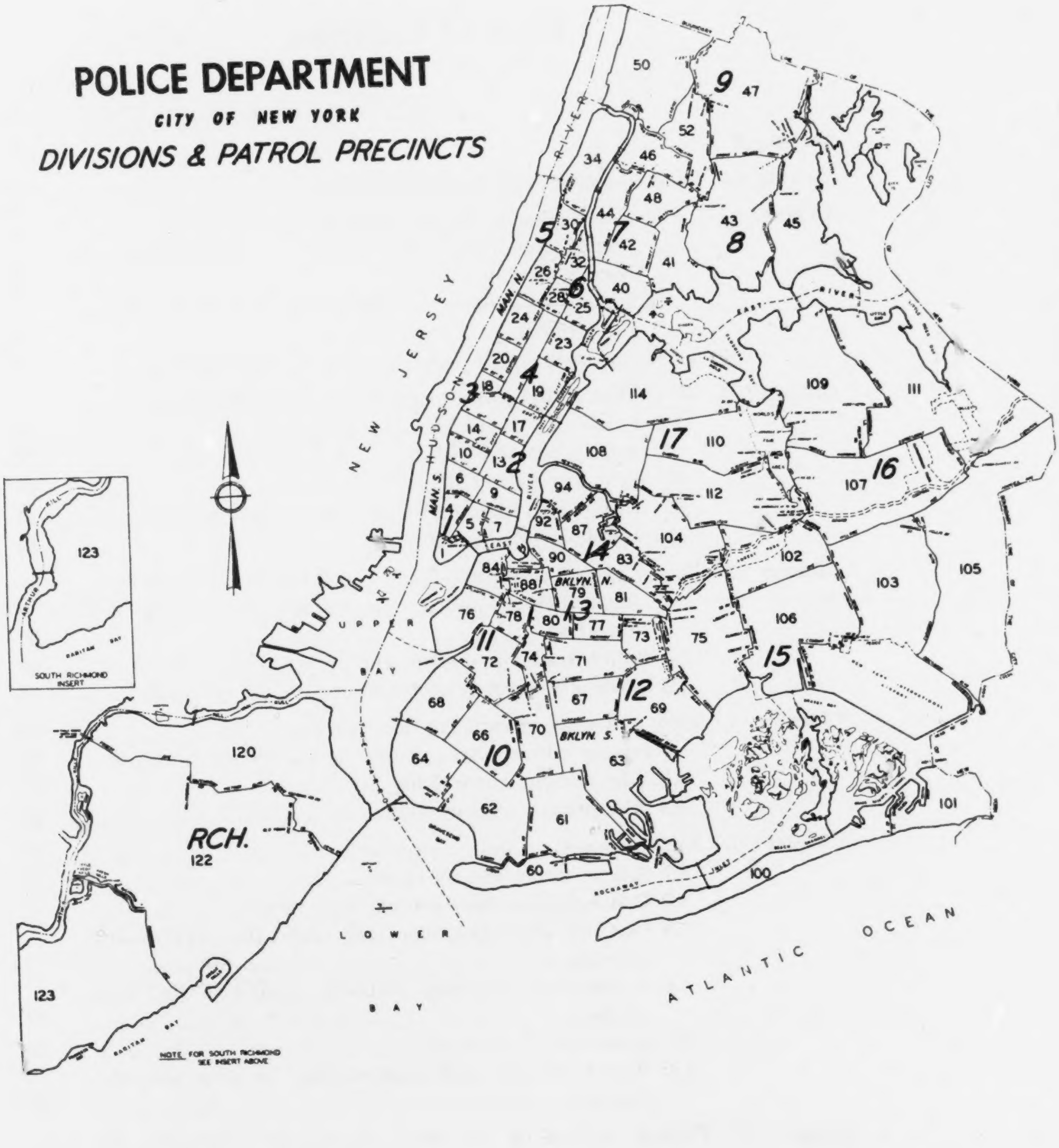
OPER. SEC.
SPECIAL ORDERS SEC.
POLICE WOMEN SEC.
C.D. SEC.

POLICE DEPARTMENT

CITY OF NEW YORK

DIVISIONS & PATROL PRECINCTS



NEW JERSEY
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LOWER BAY
ATLANTIC OCEAN
RARITAN BAY
ROCKAWAY INLET
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Chapter 1. The New York City Police Department—A Profile

1.1 Demographic and Social Setting of Police Department—A Profile

The challenges to the quality of life in metropolitan areas have become political issues, social concerns and, in certain areas, a threat to the survival of organized society. Unfortunately, but for obvious reasons, the quality of police service has been identified as a critical aspect of the urban crisis, in the eyes of some, a contributing cause, and, in the eyes of others, merely a consequence. The unique visibility of the police officer as a guardian of social peace or as a challenge to change has triggered a reexamination of law enforcement philosophy and practice unprecedented in American history. This project report has been prepared during a critical period of review which has impacted upon the New York City Police Department in terms of an unusually searching reexamination from within and significant pressures from without. Insofar as a consensus is evident in the findings of reports and studies, public and private, concerned with the police service, it reduces itself to a documentation of the hallowed premise that "the policeman's lot is not a happy one." Unfortunately, we cannot be content with generalities. The effort must be made to relate police training and performance to the contemporary dimensions of life in the New York community together with an appropriate response to the trends which appear most probable. Society, in order to remain viable, will continue to require police service. This means that young men and women must continue to be attracted to the job; they must be trained to face the realities which are likely to lie ahead of them in their two decades or more on the job, and the community at large must accept the quality of training and performance as a precondition for effective police service. It is within the framework of these concepts that this report has been formulated.

The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice (hereafter referred to as the "President's Commission"), in 1967, in its report, entitled "The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society," pointed out that the distinctive characteristic of the police role in the entire system of criminal justice "is that they are charged with performing their functions (enforcing the law and maintaining order) where all eyes are upon them and where the going is the roughest, on the street." The Commission concluded that "since this is a time of increasing crime, increasing social unrest, and increasing public sensitivity to both, it is a time when police work is peculiarly important, complicated, conspicuous, and delicate." Of the some 420,000 law enforcement officers working for some 40,000 separate law enforcement agencies, a considerable number perform their duties in the New York metropolitan area of which the city of New York is the heartland. In addition to the New York City Police Department there are specialized police agencies such as the police departments maintained by the New York City Transit Authority, housing authority, and the Port of New York Authority. There are also specialized agencies of the State of New York and the Federal Government performing law enforcement functions. All of the work of these agencies reflects the demographic and social characteristics of the city of New York and, in turn, is affected by changes in these patterns. Law enforcement operations reflect economic cycles, population movements, changes in ethnic composition, public attitudes toward law and morality, and the specific responses to these attitudes made by political leadership. As a consequence, in reviewing police training and performance and structuring relevant recommendations for improvement, all of these factors must be considered.

As generally defined, the New York-New Jersey-Connecticut metropolitan region includes 22 counties which had a population of 16 million in 1960. The process of urbanization has proceeded in the United States to the point where approximately 63 percent of the total population was in urban areas in 1960, double the percentage at the turn of the century. With the increasing growth of the suburbs, the central cities have suffered a retardation of population growth. As has been well documented, this demographic shift has left areas of blight and decay in the central cities and has accelerated the social deterioration in areas of the central city occupied by minority groups. Projected patterns of growth suggest, in the case of the New York metropolitan region, that these trends will continue. In net, there is rapid growth for the region and slow growth for the central city.

The following tabulation based upon projections prepared by the Port of New York Authority summarizes these trends.

Projected population growth, 1960–75

(In thousands)

	1960	1965	1970	1975
22 county Region	16,141	17,468	18,775	19,965
New York City	7,782	8,100	8,242	8,408
Bronx	1,425	1,430	1,440	1,448
Kings	2,627	2,635	2,645	2,665
New York	1,698	1,710	1,710	1,720
Queens	1,810	2,060	2,155	2,250
Richmond	222	265	292	325

The history of New York City has been the history of national and ethnic groups, the blending of whose cultures has been the most significant contributing factor to the formation of the city as we now know it. While the police service in the city has historically reflected in its ranks all of the national and ethnic groups contributing to the growth of the city, increased awareness of the special problems confronted by the growing black and Puerto Rican segments of the city suggests the relevance of the following data on ethnic distribution of population for the city:

Population by ethnic group, New York City, 1900–60

Year	White	Puerto Rican	Negro	Other	Total
1900	3,369,898	–	60,666	6,638	3,437,202
1920	5,459,463	–	152,467	8,118	5,620,048
1940	6,977,501	(61,403)	458,444	19,050	7,454,995
1960	6,640,662	(612,574)	1,087,931	53,391	7,781,984

A recent study by the New York State Department of Labor suggests that in the population 14 years and over and in the civilian labor force, the following ethnic composition is likely to prevail in 1965–75.

Population and labor force–1965 and 1975

(Percent)

	Population 14 and over		Civilian Labor force	
Ethnic group	1965	1975	1965	1975
New York City	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
White, non-Puerto Rican	76.2	69.3	75.7	68.9
Nonwhite, non-Puerto Rican	15.4	19.2	16.2	20.0
Puerto Rican	8.4	11.5	8.1	11.1

In summary, therefore, the police service in New York City will, at least during the next 5 years, be operating in essentially the same demographic and social setting as has been familiar during the decade of the sixties.

1.2 Statistical Profile of the New York City Police Department

The New York City Police Department, the largest law enforcement agency in the United States and the largest municipal police department in the world, consisted of a uniformed police force of 29,906 and 2,109 civilian employees at the end of 1968. The table on page 3 shows the growth of the uniformed force from 18,360 in 1939 to its present levels. The chart on page 4 shows the changes in uniformed force structure. The attrition during World War II is evident, and the fast growth after the war was only temporarily interrupted in 1958 to 1961. Spectacular increases in total uniformed force have occurred in the last 2 years. Of course, any presentation of strength figures must be evaluated in light of improved working conditions which have reduced weekly working hours and improved vacation and benefits. Basically, however, the strength of the department has grown since World War II, in terms of the need expressed by the successive police commissioners and mayors, to improve the quantity of police service in response to increasing crime and public concern with safety and the maintenance of law and order. With the growth in uniformed force strength the number of superior officers has increased, but not proportionately, in all categories. The ranks of sergeant, lieutenant, and captain are achieved through competitive civil service examinations. Ranks above captain are achieved by designation of the police commissioner. In all cases budgetary factors impact upon the numbers in each rank.

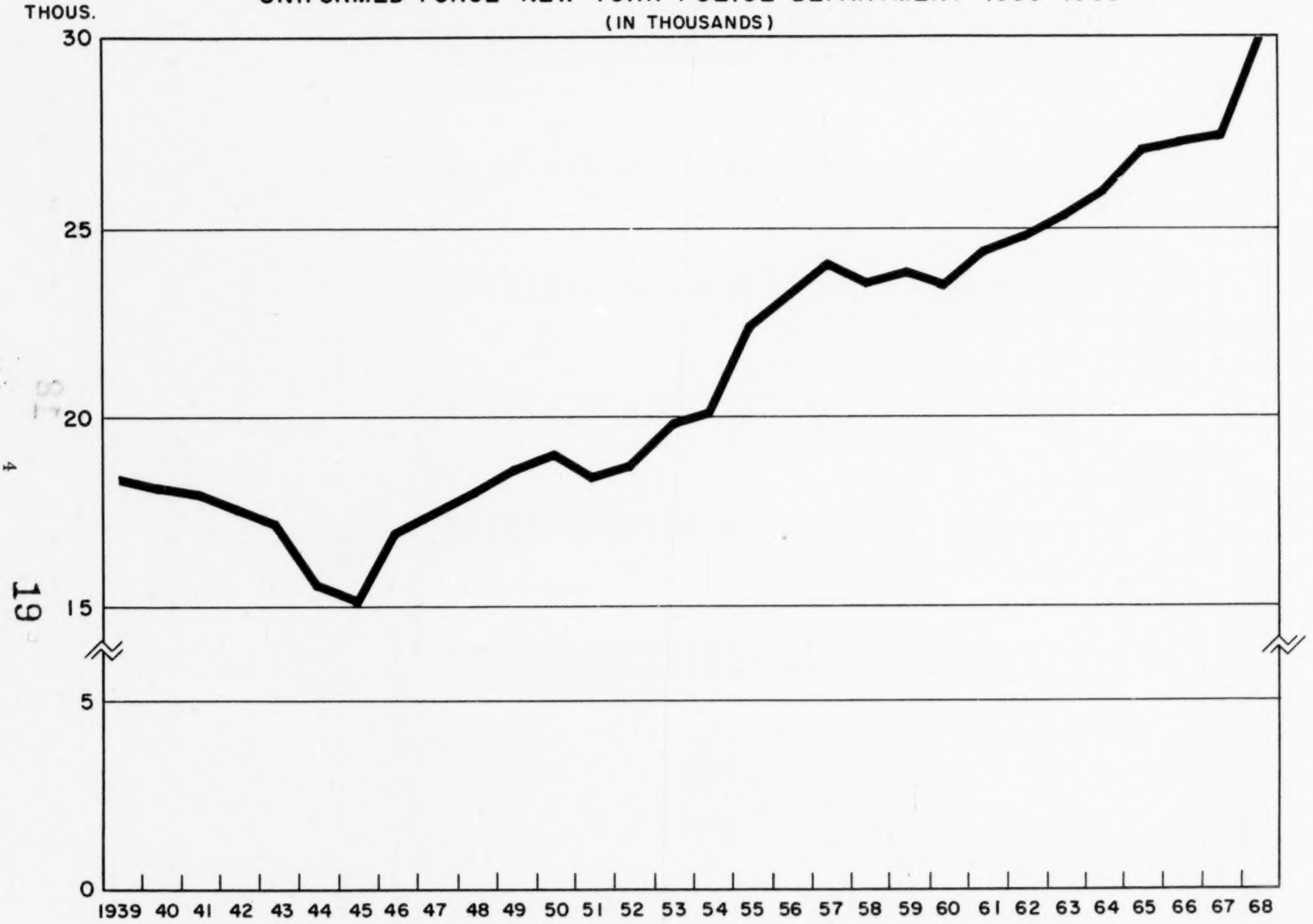
Uniformed force—New York City Police Department, 1939–68

Year	Total, department	Sergeant	Lieutenant	Captain	Above captain	Patrolman/ policewoman
1939	18,360	1,065	606	106	67	16,490
1940	18,177	1,047	623	107	68	16,307
1941	17,926	1,054	637	115	73	16,021
1942	17,582	1,039	658	96	76	15,686
1943	17,210	1,056	627	117	77	15,317
1944	15,579	1,047	628	117	77	13,684
1945	15,068	1,047	628	135	86	13,146
1946	16,973	1,041	627	135	86	15,057
1947	17,492	881	703	127	94	15,662
1948	18,116	830	681	137	92	16,349
1949	18,563	980	729	135	93	16,598
1950	19,016	1,093	720	161	90	16,924
1951	18,451	1,104	625	145	89	16,459
1952	18,762	1,144	654	172	102	16,661
1953	19,840	1,392	654	185	124	17,456
1954	20,080	1,391	699	185	124	17,652
1955	22,460	1,595	789	185	124	19,743
1956	23,193	1,594	788	211	122	20,451
1957	24,112	1,609	794	222	127	21,330
1958	23,636	1,621	807	226	130	20,823
1959	23,805	1,625	856	238	129	20,929
1960	23,515	1,574	939	241	128	20,606
1961	24,374	1,647	936	250	149	21,364
1962	24,827	1,645	935	264	152	21,805
1963	25,432	1,714	977	277	153	22,283
1964	25,897	1,609	974	266	154	22,863
1965	27,030	1,796	984	278	161	23,780
1966	27,429	1,944	986	270	158	24,041
1967	27,457	1,896	976	278	164	24,139
1968	29,906	1,918	974	277	160	26,577

NOTE.—Figures exclude surgeons and assistant superintendent of telegraph.
Source: New York City Police Department.

UNIFORMED FORCE - NEW YORK POLICE DEPARTMENT 1939 - 1968

(IN THOUSANDS)



The current strength of the police department reflects the number of appointments and manpower losses. The following table shows the number of appointments for the period 1945–68:

Number of appointments to the New York City Police Department, 1945–68

Year	Number appointed
1945	372
1946	3,094
1947	1,398
1948	1,269
1949	834
1950	1,275
1951	1,659
1952	1,356
1953	2,005
1954	921
1955	3,095
1956	1,774
1957	2,012
1958	508
1959	1,081
1960	663
1961	1,672
1962	1,340
1963	1,683
1964	1,288
1965	1,821
1966	1,929
1967	1,058
1968	3,229

Source: Personnel Records Unit, New York City Police Department.

These data are shown graphically on the chart on page 6. The erratic history of the number of appointments is clearly evident. In 1946, 1955, and 1968, over 3,000 were appointed. In 1945, 1949, 1954, 1958, and 1960 less than 1,000 were appointed. The impact of this erratic pattern of appointments is of major significance in the operation of recruit training. Manpower losses arise from retirements, deaths, and a variety of other causes. The following table and the chart on page 6 show these data. Since, in general, retirement is possible after 20 years of service in the uniformed force, there is a tendency for the overwhelming majority of persons appointed to the department to serve for at least this period of time. Consequently, waves of retirements can be related to peaks in appointments. The relationship is not, however, a simple one because it is affected by special legislation and other conditions which impact upon the attractiveness of retirement.

Manpower losses—New York City Police Department, retirement, death, and other causes, 1945–68

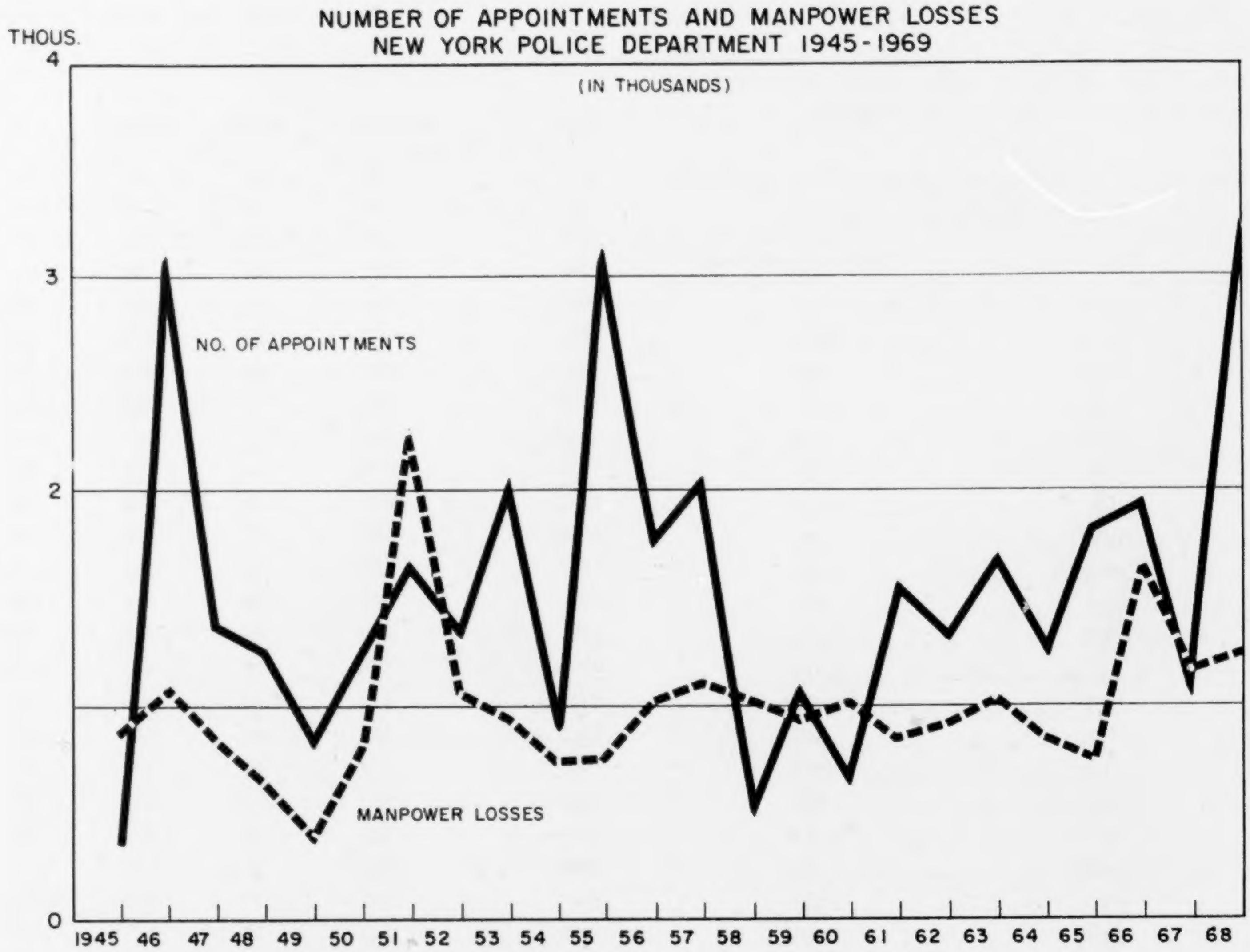
Year	Retirement	Death	All other causes	Total
1945	730	107	48	885
1946	856	81	259	1,196
1947	596	100	151	847
1948	480	94	84	658
1949	255	90	54	399
1950	647	98	79	824
1951	1,923	82	229	2,234
1952	765	88	210	1,063
1953	547	78	227	952
1954	506	64	144	714
1955	378	72	279	729
1956	725	77	255	1,057
1957	683	66	353	1,102
1958	699	68	242	1,009
1959	448	79	403	930
1960	534	78	400	1,012
1961	525	66	247	838
1962	503	68	344	915
1963	770	61	304	1,135
1964	569	79	201	849
1965	436	59	254	749
1966	1,324	71	240	1,635
1967	857	73	256	1,186
1968	747	95	378	1,220

Source: New York City Police Department.

Data developed by the personnel records unit in July of 1968 indicated the following average number of years for the majority of the force to reach superior rank status—

To attain the rank of sergeant, 11.6 years;
To attain the rank of lieutenant, 15.9 years;
To attain the rank of captain, 19.2 years; and
To attain the rank of inspector, 26.7 years.

As is evident from the table on uniformed force on page 3, most of the patrolmen will serve in that rank during their entire career in the police department.


NUMBER OF APPOINTMENTS AND MANPOWER LOSSES
NEW YORK POLICE DEPARTMENT 1945-1969

Thus, in 1968, only 3,329 members of the uniformed force out of 29,906 were serving in superior officer ranks. The implications of this fact for the training process are evident.

As of November 1968, the age of members of the uniformed force was as follows:

Average age group of all members of the force

Total	29,186
21 to 25	4,493
26 to 30	5,615
31 to 35	4,458
36 to 40	5,084
41 to 45	4,932
46 to 50	3,095
51 to 55	1,150
56 to 60	274
61 to 62	85

Under current regulations of the department, members of the uniformed force may reside in certain designated counties outside of the five counties which make up the city of New York. The distribution by place of residence as of November 1968 was as follows:

Distribution by county of residence

In New York City:	
Bronx	**3,542**
Kings	**5,632**
New York	**1,144**
Queens	**7,743**
Richmond	**2,332**
Total	**20,393**
Outside New York City:	
Nassau	**4,573**
Orange	**131**
Putnam	**71**
Rockland	**1,063**
Suffolk	**2,370**
Westchester	**855**
Total	**9,063**

While projections of total strength of the uniformed force can be made only on the basis of certain arbitrary assumptions, it is nonetheless useful to have a projection to use as a frame of reference in this project. The following represents our projections.

Projections of police strength 1968–75

Year	Manpower Losses	Recruit input	Net growth	Total strength uniformed force
1968	1,220	3,229	2,109	29,909
1969	1,383	2,500	1,117	31,023
1970	1,566	2,500	934	31,957
1971	1,749	2,500	751	32,708
1972	1,932	2,500	568	33,268
1973	2,115	2,500	385	33,653
1974	2,298	2,500	202	35,855
1975	2,500	2,500	—	35,855

1.3 Development of Police Training in New York City

The Early Days

There is some evidence that the city of New York had developed at least rudimentary formal training as early as 1853. However, reservations have been voiced about the use of the term "school." After referring to the New York Police Training School as the first to be established as an independent unit of the police department and the greatest in scope, Raymond Fosdick commented in 1920:

> Because of the varied use of the term "school" it is difficult to determine when the New York institution was first inaugurated. If a single instructor, a number of students, and a certain amount of time devoted to instruction constitute a school, then the New York department has been equipped with a school for half a century. In early times, however, the instruction was of the most elementary kind. Police recruits were taught for a period of thirty days by a sergeant specially detailed for that purpose, and in addition the students were sent out on patrol during certain hours of the day and night.[1]

Training was limited in the school to drill of the soldier, mental instruction based on local ordinances, penal law, and the rules and regulations of the Department.

Thus, the New York City police training program represents the culmination of over 100 years of development, a century during which the developmental process was not always in a forward direction. As Fosdick said:

> The development of these educational activities in New York has been irregular and uncertain, dependent upon the interest and enthusiasm of the changing police commissioners. At times the teaching corps has been enlarged and the instruction broadened only to be reduced by succeeding commissioners. The elementary preparatory instruction in laws, ordinances and rules has for the most part remained fairly constant, and has never been discarded altogether, although considerable fluctuation has occurred in the amount and variety of physical drill.[2]

Bruce Smith, writing as late as 1940, further elaborates on the fluctuations in training efficiency and adds the additional explanation of irregular appointments, a phenomenon over which police commissioners have little control.

> Even today entire States are without a single police training unit worthy of the name, and others with police schools conducted on such a casual basis, and for such brief uncertain periods, as to have little influence in raising the general level of police service. In most instances the fault lies in the fact that small forces cannot support training facilities of any kind, and that even in some of the larger establishments police are inducted at irregular and unpredictable intervals. With the facilities inoperative for long periods they are either dismantled or neglected.[3]

The early New York City training school was known as the school of instruction and included a system of on-the-job training in its 30-day curriculum. By 1914 the need for refresher training became apparent and older members were retrained and acquainted with changes in the regulations, procedures, laws, and ordinances to keep them current with their duties. At that time the school of instruction was retitled "The Police Training School." Additionally, to prepare them for their anticipated duties, courses were conducted for captains, lieutenants, and sergeants who were on the list for promotion. Specialized training was conducted for patrolmen assigned to bicycle, motorcycle, and traffic duty. A special refresher training course, consisting of 20 days of training in subjects similar to those given recruits, was administered to senior patrolmen. Thus, as early as 1914, New York police training had been divided into several currently accepted branches; namely, recruit, refresher, specialized, and prepromotion. Moreover, it included a concept, not too widely practiced today, of a very special kind of training for senior patrolmen. At the same time, recruit training was increased from 30 days to 6 weeks and, shortly thereafter, to 12 weeks. Notwithstanding the limited nature of the early New York program, it was probably the best offered by any police department in the United States.

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[1] Fosdick, Raymond, American Police Systems, New York: the Century Co., 1920, p. 299.

[2] Fosdick, op. cit., p. 300.

[3] Smith, Bruce, "Police Systems in the United States," New York: Harper, 1960, p. 282.

Fosdick stressed the importance of training and, again, employed the example of the New York City experience.

> Surely the experience not only of New York but of other large cities—like London and Paris—amply demonstrates the fact that a properly equipped and administered school is perhaps the most indispensable single feature of the police force of a modern community. For it must be repeated that the primary problem in police administration is the problem of personnel. The establishment of reporting systems and the building up of organizational schemes cannot wisely be disregarded or slighted, for they are important and have a definite place in regulating the daily work of the force. But they are aids and means, not ends. The heart of police work is the contact of the individual policeman with the citizen * * * Nearly all police activity is initiated in the field away from headquarters and stationhouses. The action that is first taken by the policeman of lower rank, operating independently, must, in each case, remain the foundation of the department's action.[4]

During the period between 1914 and 1919, the World War I years, a special emphasis was placed upon departmentwide physical training, and gymnasiums financed by the members themselves were installed in strategically located precincts. Physical training instructors from the training school were assigned to visit these gymnasiums and to instruct the members of the force in the use of equipment, wrestling, boxing, handball, jiu jitsu, and other physical exercises. The departmentwide fitness program did not survive.

The title "Police Academy" was first adopted in 1924 and the training program continued to expand in both recruit and refresher areas. In 1928 it was felt that a more modernized training program in all branches of police work was necessary in order to enhance the police career and make it a scientific vocation. The program was put into operation, employing the most advanced methods and most capable instructors, both trained educators from other professions and police officials. For a brief period of 6 years the academy was known as the police college and during that period new specialized schools were established within its structure. Some of these were the school of horsemanship, the officers training school, patrolman's and policewoman's school, and specialized training school.

An innovation of the 1930's was the establishment of an advisory board to guide the educational policies and training techniques of the academy. The board consisted of prominent personages from the field of education, which included the State and city boards of education, various educators from the colleges and universities of New York City and administrative officials of the department. Both the departmentwide fitness program and the police academy advisory board will be the subject of discussion and recommendation in later chapters of this report.

The police instructors were superior officers who were assigned to teaching duties after having received a short course in public speaking and presentation of subject matter, apparently a forerunner of present-day methods of instruction courses. Selection was based upon knowledge, experience, ability, and the power of imparting their knowledge to others. To require college degrees or other formal educational credentials would have been unrealistic at that time. Few policemen had graduated from college during the early thirties. It was not until the economic depression had made its impact on the various professions that the security and substantial police salary of New York City attracted any large number of collegians. The incoming police class of June 1940 is legendary for its large proportion of degree holders, and its membership flourished careerwise. One of them actually achieved the ultimate level, that of police commissioner.

The Post-World War II Period

Subsequent to termination of World War II, there was a sharp rise in the appointment of policemen. The force had fallen far below quota while most of the eligible young men were in the service, and the return of many who had already passed the entrance examination permitted the department to bring its personnel back to full strength. Moreover, the wartime increase in crime had not diminished with the cessation of hostilities. As a matter of fact, crime continued to rise, and there was citizen pressure to increase police quotas to offset the street violence of the forties. During September 1946 some 2,100 men, the largest number of recruits ever to be appointed in one month in the history of the police department, joined the ranks.

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[4] Fosdick, op. cit., pp. 305–306.

The training facilities were overtaxed by the vast influx and this necessitated the acquisition of an entire building to house the operation. An abandoned public school on Hubert Street (the former Public School 44) was requisitioned and renovated, to become the Police Academy of the City of New York. (In several of the cities visited during the course of this research, police training is even now being conducted in this type of substandard, rundown structure.) In addition to the school building, (an armory some distance from the academy provided an improvised physical training arena. The distance between these two major training facilities created a travel time problem and many hours were lost in daily transit from academic to physical training.

The increased recruit influx also demanded a considerably greater number of faculty. In 1952 a new selection system for instructors was instituted based upon academic background and experience in teaching. Most of the new teachers held at least a baccalaureate degree. An affiliation with the City University of New York developed a short time later (1955), and all the instructors were screened and approved by a joint committee, on which the police department and City University were represented. Recruits completing the training program were awarded 10 college credits which could be applied toward a B.B.A. degree at the Baruch School of Business and Public Administration of the City University.

The college affiliation was a major step on the road to police professionalization, for it provided a motivation for many of the New York City police to continue, and to complete the degree requirements. It was this program which provided the foundation for the College of Police Science, now the John Jay College of Criminal Justice, a senior college of the City University which is principally populated by policemen. (At the present time there are some 2,000 undergraduate students enrolled at the college, of whom approximately 1,800 are policemen.) Since the beginning of the police education program, 815 degrees have been earned, about 765 by policemen and the remainder by other law enforcement officers.

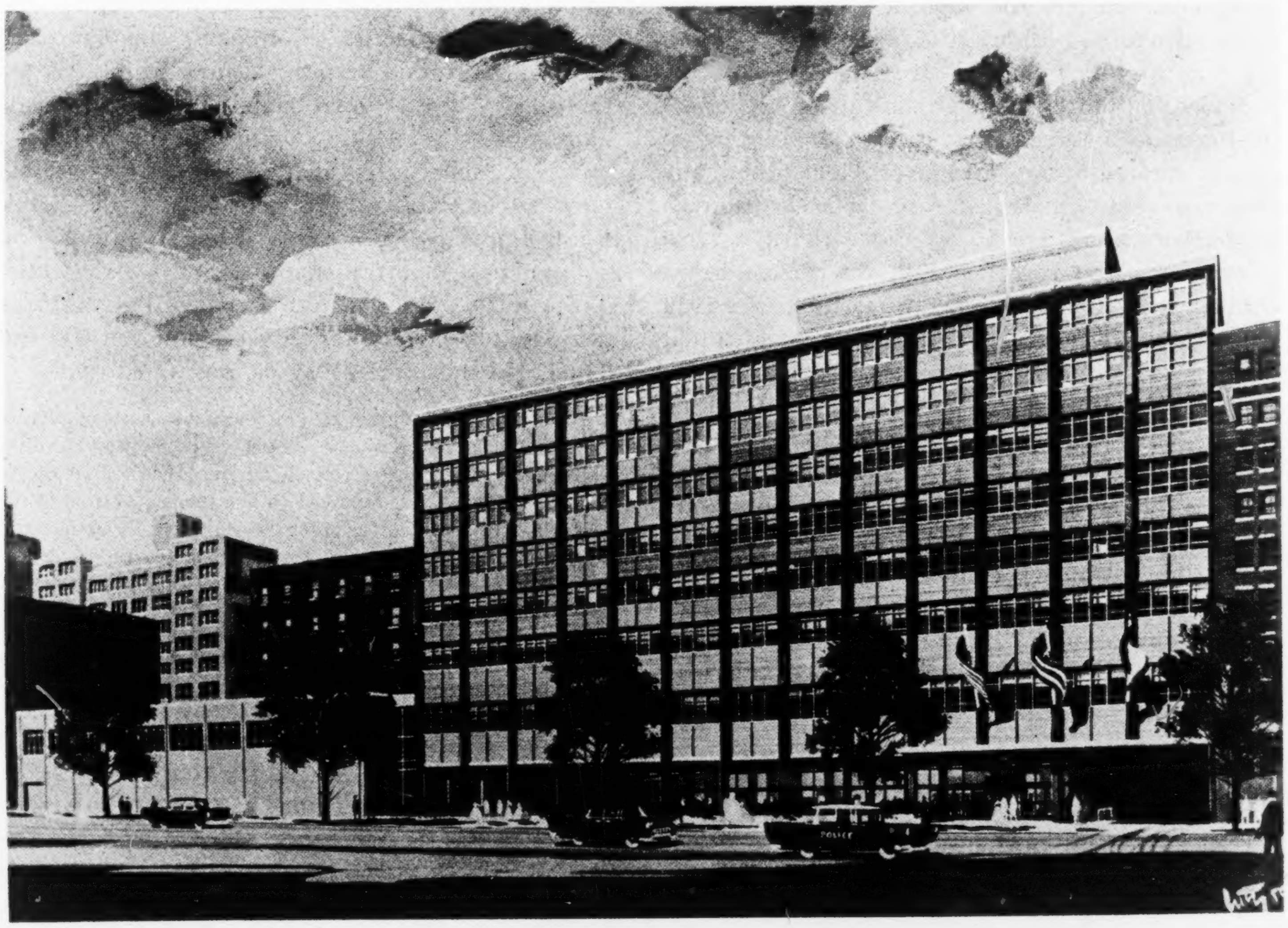
The reorganization of the academy in 1952 involved considerably more than instructor selection. The character investigation of applicants was formalized and later expanded to a point where it could be completed in almost all cases prior to entrance into the department. The task was accomplished by the assignment of a sufficient number of investigators, a procedure which has been somewhat diminished by recent emergency street needs. Besides the stepped-up character investigations and raised standards for instructors, ancillary services were expanded. A visual aids unit, complete in all respects, was organized, and a reproductions unit, including photo-offset equipment, stenofax, and modernized mimeographing equipment, was established. Instructional material was thus made more readily available. A film library was added later. In the courtyard of the academy, a simulated street scene was created, with traffic lights, fire hydrants, police signal box, fire alarm box, and equipment demonstrating the use of two-way radio. To standardize instruction in classes of multiple sections, the present lesson plan program was initiated. As that time (1954) it was stated that—

> All courses of training at the police academy emphasize human and public relations. Nearly all police work involves people and in order to effectively accomplish the aims of the police department it is necessary to win the cooperation of the public. An important training objective is to understand human inhibitions, emotions, reactions and attitudes, and to develop techniques that will promote a favorable relationship between the police and the public.

The New Academy Building

The Hubert Street structure became inadequate to house the facilities for the training of such large numbers of patrolmen, thus making imperative the acquisition of a new purpose-built edifice. On April 18, 1960, the ground was broken for a modern police academy on East 20th Street, a location central to transportation and to the Baruch School on 23d Street. Completion of the building became all the more urgent because of the rapid growth of the college program, which was holding classes at various borrowed locations through the city. The additional problem of a remotely located physical training center, as previously mentioned, had created the complication of lost travel time and decentralized administration.

The new Police Academy is a 10-story building, eight of which are above ground, with a basement and subbasement below ground level. It is of steel frame construction with exterior walls of aluminum, gray glazed brick, and pilasters of black granite. It is air conditioned and serviced by four elevators. The building is built in two wings, one fronting south on East 20th Street, the other north on East 21st Street. The south wing is the academy proper; the north houses the 13th precinct and other police units on its first three floors. Above the third floor, the academy takes over both north and south wings. The westerly part of the academy proper rises only three stories above the ground and accommodates the physical training and muster deck. The easterly part, eight stories tall, is built on columns over an open campus. Occupancy of the building and its effect on police training are discussed in chapter 3, section 3.2.



NEW YORK CITY POLICE ACADEMY

Chapter 2. What Does a Policeman Do and What are His Attitudes

2.1 Functional Research

For an effective police training program to be formulated on anything approaching a rational and scientific basis it is obvious that as much information as possible relating to the policeman's job must be collected. In addition, it would be helpful to know how the policeman views his role as a policeman in society and how the community views the role of the police.

When we know accurately what it is that a policeman does during his tour of duty it will become a much easier matter, than it is now, to make decisions relative to what a policeman should be trained to do. Then the relative importance of each component of the training program can be determined as well as the amount of time to be devoted to each component.

> The very basic questions of what does a policeman do, and what skills and knowledge does the policeman need to do his job effectively, need to be answered. The methods used to find these answers must meet the standards of scientific research and must be rigorously tested at every step.[1]

However, a word of caution must be interjected at this point. The amount of time that an officer expends in doing a job cannot be directly correlated with the need for training time for that job without accounting, subjectively perhaps, for the importance of that job. For example, the New York City Police Department now expends 10 percent of its total basic training time in firearms training, while it is obvious that the officer in the field expends only a minute percentage of his working time in the use of firearms (periodic inservice training excluded). So some sort of value judgment is necessary. Questions will have to be asked. Is it necessary for the police to be armed? If so, how well trained must the police be in the use of firearms? Since most police officers will never fire their weapons except in a training situation, how important is it that they be skilled in their use? Because of a lack of skills, which can be acquired through training, can the chance be taken of having officers injure or kill innocent bystanders during one of the infrequent uses of their firearms?

The police administrator, weighing these questions, will conclude that police use of firearms, one of the most sensitive of areas in the broad spectrum of police training, is one area where training time and actual job performance time cannot be correlated. He will conclude that the time allotted to training policemen in the use of firearms will simply be determined by the time required to assure necessary skills.

Conversely, in determining what a police officer does, we may find that he spends more time than was previously thought in interacting with people. How important is this? What sort of training effort is presently being applied toward the area of dealing with and handling people?

In addition to making a determination as to what the duties of the police are, an attempt has been made in this report to determine what the policeman thinks his role should be. A high degree of correlation may not be essential in this area but certainly an attempt should be made to explain any substantial differences between the former and the latter. Community expectations will also be noted and analyzed. Does the community expect from the police a different role than the analysis of the police task has indicated? Does the community expect a different role of the policeman than the policeman himself expects? [2] Once again, it may not be necessary to demonstrate exact relationships but marked differences should be explained.

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[1] "Proposal For a Basic Police Training Curriculum Study Project," (undated report of the Police Training Commission, Department of Law and Public Safety, State of New Jersey), p. 4.

[2] Ralph Lee Smith, "The Tarnished Badge," (New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1965), p. 93, and Paul Chevigny, "Police Power," (New York: Pantheon Books, 1969), p. 134. Chevigny states: " * * * the police reflect, with suprising sensitivity, the attitudes of the larger society."

If the duties described by the police training curriculums, the policeman, and the community correspond, relating community concepts to the police curriculum will be relatively simple. If, however, inconsistencies are uncovered it will become possible to identify them and determine the magnitude of the inconsistency.

A New Jersey Police Training Commission report of January 1969 listed 32 specific police activities.[3] This police activity scale comprised the following:

Control traffic
Stop and question
Issue traffic tickets
Interview victims and witnesses
First aid
Search crime scenes
Inspect places
Arrest
Good relations in community
Testify
Give directions
Search and question prisoners
Escort parades
Preserve evidence
Mentally disturbed persons
Give information
Family disputes
Guard visitors, property
Rescue lost persons
Help people who have lost keys
Advise, warn, or arrest youngsters
Control crowds
Assist motorists
Drunks and alcoholics
School crossings
Make written reports
Pick up stray dogs
Check business licenses
Refer citizens' complaints
Public nuisances
Election day
Recover property

Although the purpose of the above study was to rank activities by the community's attitude toward their importance (and will be referred to again in that context), it provides a useful starting point in the listing of police activities.

In outlining the job description for patrolmen, Allen Z. Gammage identifies 16 activities and describes the training needs under each of the 16 categories as follows:[4]

1. PATROLS ASSIGNED BEAT OR POST

Care and operation of departmental equipment
Care and operation of departmental vehicles
City and county ordinances
Penal code
Departmental rules and regulations
General and special orders
Discipline and deportment
Principles of beat patrol and observations
Human relations
Public relations
Geography of the city, district, and beat
Techniques of arrest, search, and seizure
Law of arrest, search, and seizure
Military drill
Gymnasium and calisthenics
Defensive driving

2. ADVISES, DIRECTS, AND GIVES INFORMATION TO THE GENERAL PUBLIC

Geography of the city, district, and beat
Departmental procedures in handling lost children
Location and use of emergency health and medical facilities
Human relations
Public relations

3. RESPONDS TO AND HANDLES EMERGENCY CALLS

Geography of the city, district, and beat
Care and operation of departmental equipment and vehicles
City and county ordinances
Penal code
Law of arrest, search, and seizure
First aid
Life saving
Departmental procedure in handling catastrophes, disasters, and fires
Departmental procedure in handling juveniles and lost children
Departmental procedures in handling sick, injured, and insane persons
Self defense
Firearms
Vehicle code
City and country traffiic ordinances
Traffiic accident procedure
Gymnasium and calisthenics

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[3] Ralph Green, Geraldine Schaeffer, and James O. Finckenauer, "Law Enforcement Training Project—Survey of Community Expectations of Police Service: A Pilot Study—First Report." (The New Jersey Police Training Commission, January 1969), pp. 16–17.

[4] Allen Z. Gammage, "Police Training in the United States," (Springfield: Charles C. Thomas, publisher, 1963), pp. 157–162.

4. Enforces State Laws, City and County Ordinances

City and country ordinances
Law of arrest, search, and seizure
Law of evidence
Criminal procedure
Philosophy of law enforcement
Civil rights (guarantees)
Self defense
Firearms
Juvenile law
Traffic law

5. Makes Arrests and Searches

Penal code
City and county ordinances
Civil rights
Techniques of arrest, search, and seizure
Departmental procedure in the transportation of prisoners
Departmental procedure in stopping suspicious vehicles
Departmental rules and regulations
Law of arrest, search, and seizure
Law of evidence
Self-defense
Firearms
Gymnasium and calisthenics

6. Investigates Citizens Complaints and Makes Preliminary Investigations of Major Crimes

Penal code
City and county ordinances
Laws of evidence, arrest, search, and seizure
Civil rights
Departmental procedure relating to civil complaints, domestic complaints, mental illness, dog bite cases, ambulance reports, trespass complaints, prowler complaints, drunk and drunk driving complaints, and the like
Conduct preliminary investigations of auto thefts, burglaries, robberies, assaults, rapes, and other sex cases
Crime scene protection and investigation
Collection and preservation of physical evidence
Crime laboratory services
Scientific investigation techniques
Departmental records and forms
Report writing
Conduct field interrogations
Conduct general interrogations and interviews

7. Interrogates and Interviews Victims, Complaints, Witnesses, and Suspects

Civil rights
Departmental procedure in taking statements, admissions, and confessions
Field notetaking
Departmental records and forms
Report writing
Departmental rules and regulations
Penal code
Techniques of interviewing and interrogation

8. Makes Necessary Reports and Records

Organization and functions of the police records division
Departmental rules and regulations
Departmental reports, records, and forms
Basic records procedures
Field notetaking and principles of report writing

9. Safeguarding Property

Organization and function of the police property section
Departmental procedure in handling lost, stolen, and recovered property
Departmental procedure in handling of impounded vehicles
Departmental procedure in handling prisoner's property
Police duties at catastrophes, disasters, and fires
Departmental procedure in protecting property at scenes of crimes, public gatherings, and recreational facilities

10. Collects, Preserves, and Safeguards Evidence

Patrolman's duties at crime scenes
Collection and preservation of physical evidence
Basic principles in scientific investigations
Laws of evidence, arrest, search, and seizure
Principles of criminal identification
Principles of criminal investigation

11. Testifies in Court

Organization of State and local courts
Organization and functions of the coroner's office

Departmental rules and regulations
Criminal procedure
Jurisdiction and venue
Law of evidence
Court demeanor and testimony

12. REGULATES AND CONTROLS TRAFFIC

General traffic procedure
Philosophy of traffic law enforcement
Departmental procedure in handling traffic violators and traffic summonses
Traffic accident investigation
Traffic direction and control
Traffic engineering
Traffic safety education
Scientific techniques for drunk driving control
Traffic law

13. COOPERATES WITH OTHER POLICE UNITS AND ALLIED AGENCIES

Federal law enforcement agencies and principal areas of cooperation
Local law enforcement agencies and principal areas of cooperation
State law enforcement agencies and principal areas of cooperation
Organization and administration of the city government, police department, and of local allied agencies

14. OPERATES AND CARES FOR DEPARTMENTAL AND PERSONAL EQUIPMENT

Care and operation of departmental equipment, vehicles, emergency equipment, and weapons
Departmental rules and regulations
Traffic laws
Organization and functions of the police property section
Departmental procedure in purchasing equipment

15. PERFORMS MISCELLANEOUS DUTIES AND PROVIDES SERVICES

Handling of bombs and explosives
Police procedures in emergencies and disasters, procedures in handling strikes, mobs, racial disturbances, and the like
Election duties
Licensing bicycles and taxicabs
Specialized duties including the work of jailor, warrant clerk, information clerk, complaint clerk

16. MAINTAINS A PROFESSIONAL ATTITUDE

History of law enforcement
Philosophy of law enforcement
Career opportunities in law enforcement
Law enforcement as a profession
Police ethics
Civil rights
Departmental rules and regulations
Civil service rules and regulations
Discipline and deportment
Introduction to professional police associations
Introduction to professional police publications
Introduction to police education programs
Human relations
Public relations

Although at first glance it appears that there is unnecessary duplication in the above training recommendations, close scrutiny reveals that the duplication serves a real purpose. For example, knowledge of the geography of the beat, district, and city is required not only of category 1 (patrol), but also of categories 2 (advises, directs, and gives information to the general public), and 3 (response to and handling of emergency calls). Further, care of equipment and vehicles is required not only in category 14 but also in categories 1 and 3.

Twentieth Precinct Project

The 20th precinct, on New York's West Side is a moderately active precinct which experiences a variety of police problems associated with neighborhoods ranging from the high-income area of Central Park West to ghetto areas. As a representative precinct the 20th has been periodically assigned the status of a laboratory where various experiments have been undertaken. One of the experiments involved a study of what a policeman does, frequency of occurrence of incidents, total time spent in each activity, and average time spent per incident.

Forty-five incidents or police duties were isolated. Total time spent on each activity, frequency of occurrence, and average time spent per incident, is shown for each type of incident in the following tables:

Incidents in the 20th precinct, New York City Police Department, ranked in order of total time spent per incident, 1967–68

Incident type	Number of incidents	Total time (in minutes)	Average time (in minutes)
1. Sick	4,552	202,143	44.4
2. Other	5,629	162,310	28.8
3. Other misdemeanors	1,190	106,034	89.1
4. Dispute	3,582	106,016	29.6
5. Burglary	2,518	104,881	41.7
6. Unfounded	5,132	102,881	20.7
7. Dead on arrival	402	60,126	149.8
8. Injured	1,170	46,063	41.1
9. Intoxicated person	1,555	41,830	25.9
10. Disorderly groups	1,693	37,780	22.3
11. Robbery	512	33,476	65.4
12. Auto accident	547	32,943	60.2
13. Alarm of fire	1,013	30,483	30.0
14. Felonious assault	309	26,982	87.3
15. Auto accident—injury	286	25,334	88.6
16. Larceny from auto	514	17,579	34.2
17. Malicious mischief	435	16,261	37.4
18. Utility trouble	378	14,502	38.4
19. Narcotics	59	13,582	230.2
20. Auto larceny	104	12,556	120.7
21. Grand larceny	235	11,598	49.4
22. Other felonies	64	9,559	149.4
23. Motor vehicle recovered	73	7,221	98.8
24. Traffic violation	270	7,201	27.1
25. Vehicles mechanical trouble	201	7,201	35.8
26. Accidental alarm	264	6,873	26.0
27. Grand larceny—pocketbook snatch	130	6,366	48.9
28. Auto safety check	126	4,175	33.1
29. Prowler	121	3,549	29.3
30. Dangerous condition	81	3,510	43.0
31. Found persons	46	2,802	60.9
32. Auto accident—serious injury or death	13	2,587	199.0
33. Arrest—serving summons	81	2,480	30.6
34. False alarm of fire	86	1,865	21.7
35. Property recovered	35	1,848	52.8
36. Homicide	6	1,744	290.6
37. Rape	29	1,622	55.9
38. Weapons	9	1,298	144.2
39. Missing persons	24	1,096	45.7
40. Prostitution	7	1,090	155.7
41. Attempted suicide	13	1,056	81.2
42. Gambling	7	813	116.1
43. Traffic court warrants	40	713	17.8
44. Suicide	6	607	101.2
45. ABC violation	5	160	32.0

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As would be expected, homicides accounted for the largest average time spent per incident (290.6 minutes), followed by narcotics investigations and auto accidents with serious injury or death. It is apparent that ordering incidents by average time spent per incident provides a possible ranking of tasks in order of complexity of task. This should provide an indication of complexity of the training task with at least a clue as to necessary training time. Strangely, the "other" category appears as No. 1 in frequency of occurrence and as No. 2 in total hours devoted to the incident. However, it ranks 38th in average time per incident. This indicates that although the category was frequently recorded, relatively little time (28.8 minutes) was expended per incident. The "other" category was used as a catchall for services which did not fit exactly into one of the other 44 categories. It is probably safe to assume that if a police officer doubted just how to classify an event he dropped it into the "other" category. Some examples of the "other" potpourri follow:

Utility trouble. Electricity, telephone.

Persons locked out of, or in, apartments, cars.

Calls for help. Often involving a report of a woman screaming; however, the responding officers were unable to locate trouble.

Meet city marshal. Police stand by at eviction scenes to prevent trouble between the tenant and landlord from developing into violence.

Stuck elevator.

Notifications of arrest, injury, or death.

Meet complainant. Sometimes results from a jumbled call where the officers are not certain of the nature of the call.

Licensed premises check.

Smoke conditions from chimneys and smoke stacks in violation of air pollution regulations.

Meet another unit.

Auto alarms sounding.

Stuck auto horn.

Stray or injured animal.

Runaway horse, and so on.

Another 6-month study in the 20th precinct disclosed that 85 percent of a patrolman's time is spent on preventive patrol while the remaining 15 percent is devoted to answering calls for services.[5] Of the time devoted to calls for services, 30 percent is associated with crime while 70 percent is noncriminal in nature. Of the "criminal" category, crimes against property consumed the most time while, in the "noncriminal" category, aid to sick and injured consumed the most time.[6] The data also reflected that during 1964 and 1965 about 1,300 man-hours were required to guard the President of the United States during his visits; and that 58 men are required year round to guard foreign missions and consulates mainly located in other precincts.

In his 1969 study of a South Bronx precinct, Capt. John F. Skelly analyzed the job of the patrolman and wrote:

> • • • the foot patrolman rarely makes notations about the legitimate but minor jobs that he performs—i.e., the visits to business premises, the door and glass checks, the advice and directions given to citizens in distress, the information given to other members of the department or the members of other agencies, the settling of minor disputes on his post, the official reports that he prepares, etc.—unless he is worried about the presence of a shoo-fly.

Skelly divided the tasks of the patrolman (foot patrol and motorized patrol were examined separately) into the following ten categories:

Patrol and observation.—Tasks included building checks, preventive patrol, foot patrol by motorized patrolmen, and special area patrol. They are best described as "routine" patrol to which foot patrolmen devoted 55 percent and car crews over 35 percent of their time. Beat men on the late tour (midnight to 8 a.m.) did little else.

Public service.—This task covered time spent on escorts, aid to sick and injured, referrals and notifications, school and church crossings, aid to stranded motorists, and aid to distressed residents and pedestrians.

Patrol investigations.—Components of this task included action taken in burglaries and burglar alarms, licensed clubs, assault and robbery, stolen cars, suspicious cars and persons, gambling operations, youth crimes and cases, and conferences with detectives.

Disputes.—Disputes included family fights, landlord-tenant arguments, taxicab fare disagreements, and disorderly groups.

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[5] John F. Skelly, "Portrait of a Precinct" (Master's thesis, John Jay College of Criminal Justice, the City University of New York, January 1969), p. 115.

[6] Sorrel Wildhorn, "Research on New York City's Police Problems" (report by the Rand Corp., November 1, 1968), p. 7.

Aid to other agencies.—This service included assistance given to employees of municipal agencies and other law enforcement groups.

Miscellaneous field services.—Services included transport members of the force, assist members of the force, pick up and deliver material, carry the mail, transport supervisors to and from the precinct, division, and borough commands, and guard crime scenes.

Enforcement action.—Enforcement included making arrests, and issuing summonses and warnings.

Reporting.—The preparation of reports and forms, memorandum book entries, and telephone reports to the station house comprised the bulk of reporting.

Community relations.—This item was included under category 2, "Public Service."

Other activity.—This category was a catchall for miscellaneous activities such as car maintenance, unit training, coffee breaks, and meal periods.

The following table presents a time-study made of these tasks. Foot patrol and motorized patrol are treated separately and are listed by hours expended on the task and by the percentage of total time consumed by each task. This study involved only 18 patrolmen, three sergeants, and one lieutenant. The work of the officers was tabulated by 15-minute intervals for 3 weeks and was supplemented by personal interviews. Due to the brevity of the study no attempt is made to evaluate its representative character. Hopefully, the study adds knowledge in an area where valid information is scarce.

A 1963 study of the functions of the foot patrolman in the 30th precinct revealed a series of anachronistic duties and rules and procedures related to these duties.[7] In performing his duties in the well-known broad general categories of preventing crime, arresting offenders, enforcing laws, preserving the peace, and protecting life and property, the foot patrolman carries out the following duties:

Job assignments for patrolmen in 1 precinct New York City, 1969

Job category	Foot patrol Hours	Foot patrol Percent	Motorized patrol Hours	Motorized patrol Percent
Patrol and observation	42	53	342	36
Public service	14	17	166	17
Investigations	3	4	118	12
Disputes	1	1	34	4
Assist other agencies	0	0	28	3
Miscellaneous services	0	0	90	9
Enforcement	1	1	32	3
Reporting	2	2	34	4
Community relations	4	5	10	1
Other	13	16	106	11
Total	80	100	960	100

Source: John F. Skelly, master's thesis, 1969.

School crossing duty.—3 to 5 hours per day, even though the department employed 1,250 civilian school crossing guards who were paid $1.90 per hour in 1963.

Bank services.—Banks are guarded for 1 hour before opening to opening. This practice was initiated in 1955 after robbers entered a bank with employees who were reporting for work. The plan fails to account for the remainder of the day when the bank remains unguarded by police. Nor does it consider businesses other than banks which, it would seem, should be entitled to equal protection.

Messenger services.—The foot patrolman is used for a variety of messenger services, including mail delivery, and transportation of fingerprint cards from the precinct to the identification center. Transportation for the latter is by public conveyance.

Details for public gatherings.—The foot patrolman is utilized for extra details such as parades, strikes, political meetings, public assemblies, sporting events, state visits, and a multitude of other events which require specialized police coverage.

Caretaker for dead human bodies.—Foot patrolmen must guard dead human bodies in cases that require the attention of the medical examiner. Even under nonsuspicious circumstances, where competent family members are present, the patrolman must remain with the body until it is removed to the morgue or released to a mortician. The time involved in this duty can range from 2 to 8 or more hours.

Caretaker of the mentally disturbed.—Foot patrolmen guard mentally distrubed persons from the time they come to their attention to the time they are either admitted or refused admittance to the psychiatric ward. In many cases where the subject exhibits violent tendencies this is a legitimate duty. In many other instances where the subject is nonviolent, senile, or disoriented other police services suffer while the police officer remains with the patient.

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[7] Alfred E. Doran, "The Foot Patrol Concept in the New York City Police Department." (Master's thesis, Bernard M. Baruch School of Business and Public Administration, the City University of New York, June 1963), ch. III.

Property protection.—The foot patrolman guards recovered stolen vehicles until a tow truck arrives, ostensibly to prevent the vehicle from being restolen. It would appear that other preventive measures could be adopted which would free the patrolman to return to his general patrol duties.

A psychological study carried out for the Chicago Police Department isolated 20 behavioral requirements in a job analysis for patrolmen that was admittedly not all inclusive.[8] However, the study was thought "* * * to contain many of the attributes which are crucial to the successful performance of the patrolman's job." These essential requirements are—

> The ability to react instantly after long periods of monotony.
>
> The ability to exhibit initiative, to use judgment and imagination in problem solving, in other words to exhibit "street sense."
>
> The ability to know the patrol area, to know the normal routine events as well as the unusual behavior patterns of its residents.
>
> The ability to make the right decision quickly.
>
> The ability to demonstrate mature judgment.
>
> The ability to judge out-of-the-ordinary situations.
>
> Good psychomotor skills, e.g., ability to drive a vehicle, fire a weapon, and handle himself physically.
>
> The ability to communicate, orally and in writing.
>
> The ability to act "effectively in extremely divergent interpersonal situations." In other words, the ability to deal with people ranging from criminal to noncriminal.
>
> The ability to endure physical and verbal abuse.
>
> Exhibit a professional and self-confident manner.
>
> The ability to restore equilibrium to social groups; that is, the ability to restore order from disorder.
>
> The ability to skillfully question participants of, as well as witnesses to, a crime or incident.
>
> The ability to take charge of situations, particularly emergency situations such as a crime or accident.
>
> The ability to work under loose supervision.
>
> The ability to tolerate stress in its many forms.
>
> The ability to exhibit courage.
>
> The ability to remain objective.
>
> The ability to maintain a balanced perspective even though being constantly exposed to the worst in human behavior.
>
> The ability to maintain the highest personal integrity.

These 20 personal characteristics pose some interesting questions for the police trainer and the academician. Can a trainee be instructed in such a way as to be made competent in all of these abilities? Certainly it is possible to train a patrolman in the physical geography of his beat and district although it would appear mainly to be a case of self-education conducted in the field. However, how is one trained to exhibit mature judgment? An individual can be taught communication skills and questioning skills but how is one taught personal courage or a balanced perspective? This is not to imply that these skills or attributes cannot be taught but only that they are much more abstract than the usually defined police role. Assistance from professionals will be required to formulate curriculums and teach in many of these abstract areas.

Generally speaking, the police training curriculum has been skills oriented. It is, perhaps, time to give attention to intangibles such as problem solving, use of discretion, use of authority and learning the proper role of police in society.

In his study of the role of the patrolman James Q. Wilson stated that his, "* * * role is defined more by his responsibility for maintaining order than by his responsibility for enforcing the law."[9] A patrolman does more than simply prevent crime and apprehend criminals. He recovers stolen property, directs traffic, provides emergency medical aid, gets cats out of trees, checks on the homes of families on vacation, and helps little old ladies who have locked themselves out of their apartments.

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[8] Melany E. Baehr, John E. Furcon, and Ernest C. Froemel, "Psychological Assessment of Patrolman Qualifications in Relation to Field Performance," (Washington: Superintendent of Documents, November 5, 1968), pp. 7–11.

[9] James Q. Wilson, Varieties of Police Behavior (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1968), p. 16.

A sample of citizens' complaint calls to the Syracuse Police Department during the week of June 3 through 9, 1966 (based on a 20-percent sample of a week's calls) illustrates this point as shown in the following table:

Citizens' complaint calls, Syracuse, N.Y., Police Department, June 3–9, 1966

Type of call	Number		Percent
Information gathering		69	22.1
Book and check	2		—
Get a report	67		—
Service		117	37.5
Accidents, illness, and ambulance calls	42		—
Animals	8		—
Assist a person	1		—
Drunk person	8		—
Escort vehicle	3		—
Fire, powerline or tree down	26		—
Lost or found person or property	23		—
Property damage	6		—
Order maintenance		94	30.1
Gang disturbance	50		—
Family trouble	23		—
Assault, fight	9		—
Investigation	8		—
Neighbor trouble	4		—
Law enforcement		32	10.3
Burglary in progress	9		—
Check a car	5		—
Open door, window	8		—
Prowler	6		—
Make an arrest	4		—
Totals		312	100.0

Source: James Q. Wilson, "Varieties of Police Behavior," Harvard University Press, 1968.

Approximately 20 percent of these calls required the officer to get information, about one-third of the calls were for service, and only about one-tenth pertained to law enforcement as such.

Characteristics Common to Police Duties

Whether the police function is divided into 32, 16, 45, or *x* number of specific duties, an analysis of these duties will reveal that most involve a whole series of common incidents. This fact has an important bearing on police training as it relates to police work.

A patrolman learns of an incident requiring his services in one of two ways. He either witnesses the incident or he is called to the incident. Patrolmen, detectives, plainclothesmen, and supervisors all face exactly the same problem in responding to calls, to get there as fast and safely as possible. Here then is a phase of training that applies to all policemen no matter what role he is performing at the time. Policemen who drive or operate vehicles (cars, scooters, trucks, motorcycles, and even helicopters) must be trained in their use. The foot patrolman must be trained in his approach to a specific action. As an example, he must be told not to run up six flights of stairs to quell a disturbance. The winded patrolman will be ineffective in cases where additional physical demands are encountered.

What other elements do most of the patrolman's duties have in common? How can training be applied to these similar duties?

Once the patrolman arrives at the scene of the incident, be it a homicide or a traffic collision, he must—

Protect the scene;
Detain participants and witnesses;
Seach for and recover evidence;
Take required reports;
Possibly effect an arrest;
Aid injured; and
Clear the scene.

From what would the scene be protected? People, including other officers—so training in how to deal with people is indicated. Detention of participants and witnesses also requires the ability to deal with people. Witnesses often must be persuaded of their value as witnesses. Interviewing requires listening. There are techniques which can be learned which will increase a person's effectiveness as a listener. The successful search and recovery of evidence not only requires training in criminalistics but also in the rules of evidence. The preparation of required reports requires abilities that can be improved by training; abilities such as penmanship, spelling, composition. Ability to deal with people also is required in the taking of reports since much of what an officer reports is what he has been told by witnesses and participants. Effecting the arrest, again, requires the ability to deal with people. Aiding injured requires first-aid training and also requires some understanding of psychology. Finally, clearing the scene involves leaving the area so that the people using it will be inconvenienced as little as possible. Almost every duty, job, role of the policeman involves interaction with other people. The need for training in human interaction cannot be stressed enough.

2.2 Attitudinal Research

The Community View of the Police Role

A 1968 Vera Institute study of the New York City Police Department revealed that none of the 14 police-community relations activities studied received a great amount of acceptance. Neither did they receive outright rejection by the community. Interestingly, a majority of patrolmen who work in areas which utilize the community council program believe that the program is fairly well accepted by the public, with organized sports activities for youth receiving the most acceptance.[10]

The fact that the police are more optimistic about their community relations programs than the study indicates that they should be, is probably explained by the natural lack of objectivity that one has of one's own efforts. However, an improvement in communications between the police and the community would probably remedy the difficulty. The correlation between police and community attitudes in this field must necessarily be high. Anything else would indicate that the police are giving to the community something that the community does not want. New York City Police are aware of the importance of the community relations problem within their city and they wish to do something about it.

A recent public opinion survey in Hamilton Township, Mercer County, N.J., asked two relevant questions. What do people believe the police should do and what do people consider important in police service? According to the survey, police functions ranked in the following order of importance:[11]

Advise, warn, or arrest youngsters
Preserve evidence
Stop and question
Arrest
Good community relations
Crowd control
Search crime scenes
Interview victims and witnesses
Issue traffic tickets
Search and question prisoners
Make written reports
Testify
Inspect places
First aid
Give information
Mentally disturbed persons
Drunks and alcoholics
Rescue lost persons
Recover property
Control traffic
Assist motorists
Give directions
Guard visitors, property
Refer citizen's complaints
Public nuisances
Election day
Escort parades
School crossings
Check business licenses
Help people who lost keys
Family disputes
Pick up stray dogs

Naturally, any generalization based on the above listing outside of Hamilton Township, should be made with care. However, this effort should be considered as a start toward a more complete compilation of community attitudes toward police, and, supplemented by studies of communities throughout the Nation, a pattern of community expectations should emerge which will aid the police trainer in developing meaningful and useful police training curriculums.

The Policeman's View of His Role

The Vera Institute of Justice study in New York City indicates that patrolmen feel that leniency on the part of the courts has damaged their effectiveness. The *Mapp* decision and the *Miranda* decision are particularly resented. "Half the patrolmen also say the Civilian Complaint Review Board has impaired the efficient performance of their duties a great deal." [12]

The stop and frisk law and the Patrolmen's Benevolent Association are regarded favorably by the policeman. However, he has little confidence in established grievance systems.

By and large patrolmen are dissatisfied with the amount of backing they receive from the department. They feel they lack the authority to do their job as the community would have them do it.[13] The patrolman sees a general trend toward permissiveness in society which results in leniency in the administration of justice. He sees this attitude as the opposite to the aggressive action he believes will do a better job of prevention of serious crimes. In general, patrolmen believe that the public wants more aggressive law enforcement and they believe police-community relations would improve if more police protection could be provided, particularly by foot patrols.

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[10] "Police-Community Relations—A Survey Among New York City Patrolmen"—A study for the New York City Police Department and Vera Institute of Justice. (Report of Opinion Research Corp., Princeton, N.J., August 1968) . p. vi.

[11] Ralph Green, op. cit., pp. 16–17.

[12] "Police-Community Relations," op. cit., p. vii.

Patrolmen feel that the end result of a police-community relations program is to develop better public understanding of the police role in the maintenance of law and order. It would seem, however, just as important for the police to develop a better understanding of the community and its attitudes toward the police role in the maintenance of law and order.

In black and Puerto Rican areas the opinion of patrolmen is divided on whether or not the public wants greater minority representation among the patrolmen assigned to the minority areas.

Although a majority of patrolmen feel that people in their area have at least "a fair amount" of respect for the police, 43 percent of police polled felt that people in their area have little or no respect for the police. Many patrolmen think that the police vocation receives less public respect than other public service occupations. Of nine occupations listed, 46 percent of the police polled felt that none were less respected than the police. The vast majority of patrolmen feel that the public does not understand the job of the police. This lack of understanding leads the public to place unrealistic demands upon the police.

Police believe that the public is critical of the slowness of police action; the public wants less attention paid to minor violations; the public favors legalized gambling but does not favor legalized marijuana or homosexuality; the public is satisfied with police aid to sick and injured; the public wants more policemen assigned to their communities; and the public's chief criticism of the police concerns the alleged police failure to prevent serious crime.

Nearly half of the policemen interviewed believe that the public thinks that policemen should be of the same racial and ethnic background as the public they serve. However, the majority believe that the public is satisfied with the proportions of blacks and Puerto Ricans now on the force. The majority also believe that the public is satisfied with the way citizen complaints against the police are now handled. Additionally, no public criticism of the actions of off-duty policemen is seen. The police believe they are unjustly blamed by the public for the failures of other city departments. These criticisms are concentrated primarily in low social-income areas.

Policemen cite a variety of reasons for public hostility toward the police. Among the cited reasons are—

> The public feeling that it can get away with being hostile toward police;
>
> General hostility toward authority of any kind;
>
> A tendency to blame police for many of society's problems;
>
> Past unhappy experiences with police;
>
> The communication of unhappy experiences that others have had with the police;
>
> Outside agitators;
>
> People who take their troubles out on police;
>
> The results of drinking;
>
> The results of drugs or narcotics;
>
> Police inability to reduce crime; and
>
> Police inability to solve a greater percentage of crimes.

Approximately one-half of the patrolmen interviewed believe that the public understands their problems; few patrolmen, however, believe that the public is enthusiastic about police-community relations programs, youth sports activities excepted.

Three out of four patrolmen believe that the public has reason to commend the police for the job they are doing and furthermore most patrolmen feel little or no reason for public criticism. Strangely, however, most patrolmen feel they would receive little or no help from the public if their lives were in danger. Patrolmen see less permissiveness toward lawbreakers as the most helpful step toward improved police-community relations. The table below is a compilation of police answers to the question: "In view of the attitudes you have described and your own experience as a policeman, how helpful do you think each of the ideas listed below would be in improving relations between the police and the people in your area?"

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[13] However, for a different viewpoint cf. Skelly, p. 123.

	Total patrolmen (percent)[1]			
	Very helpful	Fairly helpful	Not too helpful	Not at all helpful
Less leniency on the part of the courts	82	5	2	8
Educating the public on the role of the police	60	24	8	5
Stricter enforcement of the law by the police	60	20	12	5
Longer assignments in one area so the police can get to know the people better	49	25	13	10
Assigning more police to the area	34	29	20	13
Having policemen of the same racial and ethnic background as the people in their area	23	25	27	22
Community relations programs	21	49	19	8
Giving police more training in human relations and psychology	16	36	28	17
More police involvement in housing and sanitation problems	4	7	30	56
Use of name plates identifying the police	2	3	16	76

Source: Vera Institute of Justice.

Not only do patrolmen believe that court leniency has reduced their job effectiveness, they also believe it has caused a deterioration in their relationships with the community. The following compilation signifies the police attitude to the question: "In your opinion, to what extent, if any, does each of the following impair the efficient performance of your duties?"

	Total patrolmen (percent)[1]			
	A great deal	A fair amount	Very little	Not at all
A tendency toward leniency on the part of the courts	84	8	2	2
The *Mapp* decision which forbids the use of illegally obtained evidence; i.e., evidence secured during an illegal search or seized under illegal circumstances	52	24	13	6
The Civilian Complaint Review Board	52	21	15	8
The *Miranda* decision which requires police to advise those in custody of their right to remain silent and to have an attorney	41	25	18	11

Source: Vera Institute of Justice.

The stop and frisk law and the PBA were seen, by patrolmen, as being more helpful than department grievance procedures. To the question "How helpful do you think each of the following is in reducing the pressures of your work?" the police replied as follows:

	Total patrolmen (percent)[1]			
	Very helpful	Fairly helpful	Not too helpful	Not at all helpful
The stop and frisk law	42	28	16	8
Representation by your line organization (PBA)	41	29	17	7
The informal means afforded of discussing your problems with your supervisors and commanding officer	24	31	21	17
The formal departmental grievance machinery	19	20	30	25

Source: Vera Institute of Justice.

In his classic 1951 study of department X, William Westley described the police perception of how the public regards the police as follows:

> The policeman divides the public into five general categories, according to the way he thinks they feel about him, the way in which he must approach them in order to obtain respect, their political power, and their reference to his aims.

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[1] Percent expressing no opinion is not shown.

[1] Percent expressing no opinion is not shown.

> The groups then form a rough continuum ranging from the child who is thought to like the police, to react to kindness, to have political power, and to have reference to the aims of the police only in his status as a future citizen, through the better class of people, the slum dwellers and the Negroes, to the criminal who is thought to hate the police, to have no political power, to whom force is the only intelligible language, and who is useful to the police as he is apprehended and convicted.[14]

Further, William Westley found that the police regard "respect for the police" as so important they are willing to exert their power to preserve it, even if the use of this power itself approaches the unlawful. In fact, the "maintenance of respect for the police" is characterized as one of the two "major occupational norms of the police."

Seventy-four patrolmen in department X were asked by Westley to define incidents where they would feel justified in "roughing a man up." Thirty-nine percent felt that this procedure would be proper in cases of disrespect for the police. This "* * * supports the thesis that the maintenance of respect for the police is a major orientation of the police."

The symbol, to the patrolman of department X, of disrespect to the police is the "wise guy." A method of handling this individual is described in the following response:

> * * * for example when you stop a fellow for routine questioning. Say a wise guy, and he starts talking back to you and telling you you are no good and that sort of thing. You know you can take a man in on a disorderly conduct charge but you can practically never make it stick. So what you do in a case like that is to egg the guy on until he makes a remark where you can justifiably slap him and then if he fights back you can call it resisting arrest.

William Westley points out that the policeman feels the need to punish this individual. Although the officer knows he cannot legally do a thing to the man, he determines a way to punish him and still keep himself out of trouble.

Although the police in department X seemed sensitive to public opinion concerning the use of force, they exhibited lack of sensitivity in their method of achieving respect. Their attitude was one of demanding respect. Respect would be taught to those who failed to exhibit proper respect.

Violence was also condoned when the police were sure of the guilt of the suspect, particularly if the alleged crime was a sex crime. This attitude can be summed up as follows: "The offender had used violence and it was violence that he deserved in return." The policeman is a cynic living in a hostile world, according to this study of department X. To protect himself, the policeman lives in a secret world of police solidarity. He feels degraded and inferior (70 percent of department X members interviewed stated they would not want their sons to become policemen), looks for the selfish motive, feels rejected, and consequently intensifies his need for self-assertion, which becomes articulate as a need for maintaining respect for the police.

Another study, however, develops information from a different perspective which tends to counterbalance Westley's excessively "force oriented" police. New York City patrolmen tested in a recent study did not strongly concur that disrespect shown to the police is justification, by itself, for the use of force.[15] The following table shows the responses in this area. A recapitulation of answers to the question, "Most officers agree that some force is necessary and justified when a citizen insults and curses a police officer," is as follows:

Year in academy and time tested		Strongly agree (percent)	Agree (percent)	Uncertain (percent)	Disagree (percent)	Strongly disagree (percent)	Total
1961:	End of training	5	33	28	28	6	100.0
	2 years in field	4	44	10	39	3	100.0
1962:	Start of training	2	25	15	50	8	100.0
	End of training	3	23	18	49	7	100.0
1963:	1 year in field	1	34	16	45	4	100.0
	3d month of training	2	30	15	46	7	100.0
	4th month of training	4	31	19	43	3	100.0

Source: John H. McNamara in "The Police: Six Sociological Essays," ed. by David J. Bordua (New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1967).

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[14] William Westley, "The Police: A Sociological Study of Law, Custom and Morality" (doctoral dissertation, Department of Sociology, the University of Chicago, 1951), pp. 175–179.

[15] John H. McNamara, "The Police: Six Sociological Essays," ed. by David J. Bordua (New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1967), p. 213.

The fact that a policeman's attitude toward his role can change over time—can vary with his experience and background—is illustrated by Arthur Niederhoffer's study of police cynicism.[16] The police recruit will be less cynical than the experienced patrolman. The new recruit will be less cynical than the more seasoned recruit. Superior officers will be less cynical than patrolmen (cynicism being a defense against frustration). Patrolmen with a college education will be more cynical than those without. Patrolmen with preferred details will be less cynical than those without. Foot patrolmen will be more cynical than those who are assigned to other duties. Patrolmen who receive awards will be less cynical than those who do not. Jewish patrolmen will be more cynical than non-Jewish patrolmen (the assumption being that the Jewish tradition stresses success in the professions). Members of the youth division will be less cynical than members of the vice division. Finally, middle-class patrolmen will be less cynical than patrolmen coming from the working class.

The degree of cynicism that a patrolman feels toward his work will increase in proportion to his length of service up to about 5 years. From 5 to 10 years it will level off and, finally, at 17 or 18 years (approaching retirement) cynicism will be reduced. Arthur Niederhoffer defines the preliminary stages of cynicism, at the recruit level, as "pseudocynicism." His second stage, "romantic cynicism," reached in the first 5 years, is particularly damaging because the most idealistic members of the force are most susceptible to this cynicism. The third stage, "aggressive cynicism," occurs near the 10-year point and is marked by resentment and hostility. Finally, in the last few years of his career, "resigned cynicism" replaces the former, more blatant type. This detachment may be passive and apathetic or express itself as a form of mellow, if mild, good will. It accepts and comes to terms with the flaws of the system.

Another study analyzes the trait images that are defined by police recruits (in three stages of training), Police Academy instructors, detective candidates, and superior officers. Forty desirable personality traits were selected. These traits were those expressed by 60 randomly selected New York City Police Department sergeants. The traits were expressed as "those personal qualities constituting a 'good' policeman."[17]

The following is taken from a "Trait Image Survey" questionnaire.

TRAIT IMAGE SURVEY

This questionnaire is part of a larger research project in which we hope to find out what qualities distinguish the best possible policeman.

Your answers will be regarded as confidential. Thank you for your cooperation.

Please fill in the following background information.

Name: ______________________ Date__________

A.

1. Date of appointment____________ 2. Rank__________

3. Years of service: Ptl.___ Sgt.___ Lt.___ Capt.___ Higher___

4. Present assignment: ____________ How Long:______

5. Any complaints?________ How many?________

6. Any awards____________

7. Major previous occupations__________ How long?______

B.

8. Sex______ 9. Age______ 10. Social Status____________
(single or married)

11. Number of years in school______________________

12. Ethnic background______________________

13. College graduate____________ Major field__________

Type of Degree____________

14. Graduate work ____________ Major field__________

Type of Degree____________

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[16] Arthur Niederhoffer, "Behind The Shield" (Garden City: Doubleday & Co., Inc., 1967).

[17] William Wetteroth, "Variations in Trait Images of Occupational Choice Among Police Rercruits Before and After Basic Training Experience," (master's thesis, Psychology Department, Brooklyn College, 1964), "The Center for Law Enforcement Research Information," Washington, D.C.: International Association of Chiefs of Police, (vol. 1, No. 3, autumn, 1965), p. 29.

INSTRUCTIONS

1. Read over the following list completely.

2. Select 10 qualities which you believe to be essential in a good policeman.

3. Indicate the order of importance by placing a number (1-10) in the space next to the quality selected. #1 is most important, #2 is next in importance, etc.

4. If you think some quality of importance has been omitted, write it in one of the spaces provided under "Other", and indicate its numerical order as above.

_____Dedication
_____Air of authority
_____Even tempered
_____Efficient
_____Good health
_____Common Sense
_____Emotional maturity
_____Respect for superiors
_____Physical strength
_____Honesty
_____Knowledge of the police job
_____Leadership
_____Religious
_____Friendly
_____Well trained
_____Practical
_____Not naive
_____Studious
_____Reliability
_____Well educated

_____Alertness
_____Self reliance
_____Initiative
_____Cooperation
_____Appearance
_____Courtesy
_____Intelligence
_____Sense of humor
_____Patience
_____Tolerance
_____Courage
_____Compassion
_____Discretion
_____Good family background
_____Sobriety
_____Integrity
_____Morality
_____Responsibility
_____Pleasant personality
_____Industrious

Other____

Before the actual beginning of training, recruits selected the following traits ranked in order of importance:

1. Alertness
2. Honesty
3. Job knowledge
4. Common sense
5. Intelligence
6. Dedication
7. Appearance
8. Well trained

At the end of their formal academy training the recruits were tested again and the traits were ranked as follows:

1. Alertness
2. Honesty
3. Courage
4. Common sense
5. Intelligence
6. Appearance
7. Well trained

Finally, at the end of the 9-month probationary period, 5 months of which had been devoted to field experience, the test was again administered. Two important changes took place: Job knowledge was added to the list; and courage was dropped, indicating, perhaps, that a period of field training had emphasized the importance of occupational information. Concomitantly, exposure to the danger involved in actual job performance had, evidently, reduced its perceived importance, thus relegating courage to a position of lesser selection frequency.

The study made in connection with this present research project examines the change that takes place in the occupational image of the same group over a lengthy period of some 10 years of practical experience. As in most longitudinal studies, the effect of social change over the intervening period must be separated from the effect of occupational experience, the variable under evaluation. This is particularly true of a study which purports to measure the police image. The past decade, with its civil rights upheaval has seen major changes in the role of the police officer. His tact, discretion, and human relations expertise have supplanted his law enforcement functions to the extent that scholarly civilian students of police science now describe him as primarily a "peace keeper" rather than a "law enforcer." It would be reasonable to expect that, with this variation in public perception, the current police applicant would view his anticipated occupational role much as does the public of which he is a member and, to a lesser extent, in terms of his anticipated police career. Similarly, but to a lesser extent, it would be expected that the occupational image of the experienced police officer, since he has interacted with the public over the period of social change, would be affected by the role the public has created for him.

Thus, two major questions are raised in the present study: Does a lengthy period of police experience alter the early opinions of an individual about the personal qualities required for effective job performance? If so, to what extent is the change attributable to an altered public image of the function rather than occupational experience? The answer to the first question is sought by analyzing responses to the checklist administered now, for the fourth time, to 10-year veterans and observing variations between their present responses and those on the three administrations during their earlier police careers. The second question relating to the effect of social factors is answered by testing a current recruit group at time of entrance to the academy. To the extent that differences in the veterans' present choices vary in concordance with those of the current neophytes, the change may be attributable to a general public change in attitude. Changes in veterans' responses in a fashion discordant with those of the new group may be attributed to occupational experience.

Survey Methodology

Several refinements in the statistical methodology were employed in the present study. The sensitivity of the scale was enhanced by awarding differential values to the various ranks selected in the summary scoring. The previous method had simply scored the trait a value of one if selected and a zero if not selected. The rank value differentiation, too, created a myriad of fine discriminations in the statistical expectancies for each choice. Therefore, the chi square formula, which depends upon the difference between expected and observed frequencies,[18] was discarded and a model utilizing the normal distribution was substituted. This method simply compared the differences between the arithmetic mean selection frequency of each trait, after allowing for appropriate rank values. Thus, the trait selected as first choice received a value of 40, second choice 39, and so on to the 10th choice, which received a value of 31.

After summing and averaging the scores, those traits which had been selected with significant frequency; i.e., greater than chance probability, were identified and discussed. The differences between administrations were determined by a statistical formula known as the "t" test which, similarly, indicates those which changed to a degree greater than chance.

One difference in the recruit subject population should be noted. In the earlier study there were 40 who had taken all three previous tests. During the intervening decade, nine had left the department for various reasons; thus, only 31 remained available for testing on this, the fourth administration. In order that the observed change might reflect a precise measure of difference between identical individuals, the choices of the nine missing subjects were eliminated from all four administrations. Thus, two changes in methodology are incorporated into the present study, which might alter the previous results as well as affect the present findings; namely, the differential values for rank order of choice and the exclusion of nine subjects' responses previously included.

Results of Survey

The first comparison in the tabulation of survey results concerns the answer to the second question; namely, the effect of the social changes during the past decade on the choices of present day police recruits. An entering class of 246 recruits was tested, that of July 1, 1968. The following table lists the 10 traits most frequently selected by this group and, for comparison, the 10 most popular choices of the 1959 group at the time of their entrance into the department. The data are calculated by the revised methodology previously described and the numerical values awarded the traits represent the arithmetic mean average attained out of a maximum of 40.

10 traits most frequently chosen by recruits of 1959 and July 1968

1959		July 1968	
Trait	Average	Trait	Average
Alertness	30.32	Alertness	32.24
Job knowledge	30.19	Job knowledge	29.19
Honesty	27.73	Honesty	27.07
Common sense	27.44	Well trained	26.54
Dedication	26.87	Dedication	26.08
Intelligence	26.10	Common sense	25.53
Respect superiors	25.45	Intelligence	24.33
Well trained	24.63	Responsibility	24.18
Appearance	24.29	Courage	24.14
Reliability	22.52	Appearance	22.99

The traits selected at entrance by the two groups, appointed 10 years apart, show a remarkable similarity, almost identical. True, the rank order shows a trifling variation, but none of the changes in rank have statistical significance.[19] If reliability and responsibility are regarded as similar in definition, they may have been interchanged without altering the overall intent of the subjects. "Courage," too, was omitted from the 1959 recruits' selections, having averaged only 21.29; however, the difference here, as in the above case, was also below the 5-percent level, the *t* score being 1.52.[20] The values of these traits are not given in the table on page 26 for the group which did not accord them preference. "Responsibility" averaged 21.29 in the 1959 group. This differed from the 1968 value at the 1.54 level. "Reliability" with the 1968 group averaged 22.83 and the significance of the difference was only 0.178. Therefore, even without according the traits similar definition, neither difference reached the 1.96 value required for the 5-percent confidence level.

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[18] The chi square rationale is explained in considerable detail in most texts on statistical methodology. The reader is referred to Edwards, Allen L., "Experimental Design in Psychological Research," New York, Rinehart & Co., 1950.

One difference is significant, however. "Respect for Superiors," which received a value of 25.45 with the earlier group, was accorded an average of only 21.28 by the 1968 recruits. This difference was significant at the 5-percent level, the *t* score being 2.38. This may reflect a general trend among present day youth to regard persons in authority with a tinge of contempt, or, perhaps, the philosophy of a generation ago which may have accorded automatic respect to age and authority. The test for the effect of social change, then, showed a minimal influence on the occupational image of entering policemen, it being limited to the current problem of youth with authority figures. A later test, not reported here, following 8 months' field experience, resulted in a significant increase in "respect for superiors" ($t = 2.54$), the average choice being 23.43, a value which would have included the trait in the select 10. They learned.

The primary objective of this study is, of course, to answer the first question posed; namely, does a relatively lengthy 10-year period of occupational experience serve to change the opinion of policemen about their ideal occupational image as expressed by trait preferences? As indicated previously, the experimental group of recruits appointed in 1959, their number now reduced to 31, were tested at the time of entering the occupation; again, at the termination of their 4 months of training at the academy, and a third time, after 9 months tenure, following their first 5 months of field experience. The change observed was considerably smaller than previous experimental evidence on the effects of the intake of additional occupational information would have led us to expect. One possible explanation of the relative durability of the occupational stereotype may be found in the notion that the lifetime careers, such as doctor, lawyer, policeman, nurse, and the like, frequently form the basis of children's games. As such, they become so familiar to individuals at an early age that their occupational image becomes stereotyped and may persist even under a forced reappraisal such as the trait checklist, and in spite of some actual job experience. Obviously, a year of police experience, including both early training and field work, failed to alter the early impressions of the police recruits under study to any appreciable extent. The effects of 10 years' experience, however, are delineated in the table on the following page.

The differences between the three different tests given the 1959 class are not identical with the results reported earlier in this chapter owing to changes in statistical methodology and the difference in the content of the group. Only one significant change occurred between the first two administrations of the test. "Dedication" was reduced in value from 26.9 to 21.6 and does not even appear among the highest 10 traits on the results of the past administration. This difference is significant at the 5-percent level (t=1.99). Other changes were decreases in "respect for superiors" ($t = 1.66$) and "job knowledge" ($t = 1.84$). Both of the latter changes, although substantial, did not reach the 5-percent level of statistical significance. An increase was noted in the choice of "courtesy," but, as in the case of the previous two traits, it did not reach the required level of significance.

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[19] The term, "Statistical Significance" refers to a difference of sufficient magnitude to rule out, for the most part, the probability that it could have occurred by chance.

[20] An explanation of 't' scores and their values will be found in Griffin, John I., "Statistics: Methods and Applications," New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1962.

10 most frequently selected traits (recruits appointed October 1959)

Test 1 (at appointment)		Test 2 (after academic training)		Test 3 (5 months in field)		Test 4 (after 10 years' experience)	
Trait	Average	Trait	Average	Trait	Average	Trait	Average
Alertness	30.32	Alertness	32.76	Alertness	31.86	Honesty	31.95
Job knowledge	30.19	Intelligence	29.82	Common sense	30.69	Common sense	31.02
Honesty	27.73	Honesty	27.44	Honesty	28.50	Dedication	28.29
Common sense	27.44	Well trained	27.24	Intelligence	27.23	Job knowledge	27.71
Dedication	26.87	Common sense	26.98	Job knowledge	27.19	Alertness	25.69
Intelligence	26.10	Courtesy	25.19	Well trained	26.37	Integrity	24.36
Respect superiors	25.45	Job knowledge	25.15	Appearance	25.00	Emotional maturity	24.26
Well trained	24.63	Appearance	25.00	Courage	24.17	Well trained	24.16
Appearance	24.30	Courage	24.65	Courtesy	24.15	Intelligence	24.08
Reliability	22.52	Efficiency	23.02	Reliability	23.71	Initiative	23.48

No trait changed significantly between tests two and three, the period of field service. "Cooperation" (t=1.66) and "physical strength" (t = 1.80), neither of which appear among the top 10, showed substantial decreases, but since neither had received a high degree of acceptance on either test, the significance of the change must be conjectural.

The differences, of course, which are of primary concern are those which appear on the fourth test after 10 years police experience. A striking change took place in the popularity of "alertness." After having maintained a consistent first place on all previous tests and having been chosen at a statistically significant level in all three cases, "alertness" was relegated to fifth choice by the veterans and not even accorded acceptance at the 5-percent level. Similarly important is the emergence of "emotional maturity" to a position of prominence. The trait, which had averaged only 18.5 on the administration following early field experience, was accorded a value of 24.2 by the veteran patrolmen, not quite enough to reach a statistically significant level, but, being chosen seventh, it was within the highest 10 choices. "Dedication," which had failed to reach visible popularity in the two tests subsequent to entrance, reappeared strongly in third place, its 28.3 average being significant at the 10-percent level. The change between test 3 and test 4 (t = 1.73) approached significance.

Two changes occurred in traits which did not reach a significant popularity level on any previous test, "even tempered" (t = 1.96) and "compassion" (t = 2.50). The latter changes are important because their increase in choice frequency is significant and they are in the direction which would be expected in the light of changing times.

"Integrity" was included in the top 10, but fell slightly short of the required significance level. The importance of the emergence of "integrity" as a choice is underlined by the selection of "honesty" for first place and at the 1-percent level of choice, and by the return to favor of "dedication," a quality which had been relatively neglected since the preappointment test. It is worth mentioning, however, that "dedication" was also selected by the recruits in 1968.

A trend toward more humanitarian traits is observable in the changes between test 3 and test 4 and this trend is clearly evident in the table that follows:

Variations in choice frequency
between test 3 and test 4

Increase	*Decrease*
Honesty	Appearance.
Dedication	Alertness.[1]
Integrity	Intelligence.
Emotional maturity[1]	Well trained.
Compassion[1] [2]	Reliability.
Even tempered[1] [2]	Courage.[2]

It is apparent that the decreases occurred in traits which reflect the police officer's image predominantly as that of a law enforcement officer. These are the action oriented variables, the so-called "practical" qualities. The "alert," "well-trained," "courageous," "reliable" police officer who presents a natty appearance is a thing of secondary importance to the veteran police officer of today.

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[1] Significant difference.

[2] Not selected within 1st 10 on either test.

On the contrary, the present-day officer, experiencing as he does, a daily confrontation with pathetic situations of a nonlaw enforcement nature, is more an "agent of social control" than the "frontier marshal." As such, he perceives himself as embodying the qualities of "emotional maturity," "integrity," "honesty," and "dedication." The movement toward "even temper" may reflect his need for restraint in the face of the insult and abuse which have been his lot of recent years. The trend toward "compassion," too, is compatible with the officers' awareness, now, of their role with the sick, the injured, and the emotionally disturbed people with whom they are so often thrown in contact.

Implications for Training

One question that appears most reasonable to ask at this point is, why did it take so long for our experimental group to come to these realizations? One would have expected this awareness to have been present at the termination of academic training, or at the very latest, the conclusion of their early field training. One possible explanation for the lengthy interval could be offered in terms of the social change which has occurred and has produced the present condition which results in a revised occupational role image for policemen; that the previously expressed images were appropriate to the times. If this argument is true, however, how does one explain the fact that present day recruits have essentially the same choices as those of 1959? It would appear from the findings that the altered image is a result of occupational experience rather than changing times.

The effective performance of police functions demands that the officer have a realistic self-image. The academic training period and early field experience apparently had little effect on the initial preconceptions of New York City recruits, although James W. Sterling found that the police of other cities did, indeed, alter their preconceptions during the early training period. Perhaps the New York City recruit is unique in that he clings to his original occupational image until experience finally compels him to face the reality of the situation. It may also be that the training program at the academy has not been successful in converting the recruit to the desired attitudes. In either case, the necessity for an intensive human relations training program in New York is obvious. Regardless of what efforts in this direction have been made to date and notwithstanding the extraordinary number of hours which have been devoted to this area, the end product, the attitudes of the recruit show little trend in the desired direction. Recommendations to alleviate this difficulty appear in later chapters of this report.

2.3 Who Are the Recruits

Entrance Procedure

Young men who apply for employment in the New York City Police Department do so by submitting a brief preliminary application to the city department of personnel, the central hiring agency. They must be high school graduates or possess a high school equivalency diploma or acceptable GED certificate. There are no preemployment residency requirements, but at the time of appointment they must live in New York City or one of six adjacent counties in New York State. They must be U.S. citizens and possess a valid New York State motor vehicle operator's license.

Physically, their height must be at least 5 feet 7 inches, a figure recently reduced from 5 feet 8 inches in the hope of qualifying some of the many shorter Puerto Rican residents. Vision must be 20/30 in each eye without glasses and they must be otherwise in good physical condition without a history of any permanently debilitating disease. They must be 21 years of age at time of appointment and less than 29 at date of filing application. Thus, no member of the incoming class may be under 21, but, depending on the interval between filing and appointment, may be somewhat over 29. Years spent in the armed services may also be deducted from the maximum age limit.

They must pass a written examination similar to an intelligence test and a physical exam which tests agility and strength. The grade achieved on the written exam establishes the place on the eligibles' list; the physical is merely qualifying.

There is some statistical evidence that the examination passing grade of 75 percent is scaled to accommodate recruiting needs. The fact that the department of personnel, the agency responsible for recruiting, is also the examining agency, provides some rationale for the implication. The following table shows the proportion of persons passing the extrance exam since 1946. Assuming that the exam from year to year has a similar difficulty level and that there is no reason to believe that the applicants vary much in intellectual caliber, one would expect a fairly similar proportion of applicants to pass from one year to another. Yet, over the 22-year period between 1946 and 1968 the range of those passing varied from 22.0 percent in 1953 to 79.04 percent in 1968. It is apparent from these data that some rescaling may have been effected on the passing grade. This lowering of standards is reflected in the mental ability scores shown in the table on page 31 and the chart on page 32. The 1968 test was successfully passed by six out of seven candidates and two-thirds of those also passed the physical. In 1969, for the class of May 16, the IQ average plummeted to a new low of 93.19.

Number taking examination for patrolman/policewoman, number passing and number on list, 1945–68

Year	Patrolman			Policewoman		
	Took exam	Passed exam	On list	Took exam	Passed exam	On list
1945[1]	....	....	....	....	....	....
1946	18,295	5,403	3,000	....	....	....
1947	16,274	6,160	4,488	695	244	215
1948[2]	....	....	....	....	....	....
1949[2]	....	....	....	....	....	....
1950[3]	....	....	....	....	....	....
1951	21,736	10,196	6,993	....	....	....
1952[2]	....	....	....	934	167	144
1953	10,323	2,272	1,337	....	....	....
1954	10,631	6,073	3,684	....	....	....
1955	14,512	4,827	4,827	1,072	349	242
1956	11,413	6,177	6,177	....	....	....
1957	8,492	2,926	1,875	....	....	....
1958[2]	....	....	....	....	....	....
1959	8,771	5,109	3,831	....	....	....
1960	8,630	3,670	2,361	1,110	421	421
1961	7,005	3,358	2,283	....	....	....
1962	13,306	6,101	6,101	....	....	....
1963	11,935	5,675	5,676	....	....	....
1964	5,866	2,598	2,598	....	....	....
1965	23,347	10,814	10,744	876	441	268
1966	6,453	2,416	2,240	....	....	....
1967	25,139	13,639	7,960	....	....	....
1968	7,776	6,146	4,547	....	....	....

[1] No records.

[2] No exam.

[3] Exam held in 1950; list established 1951.

Source: New York City Police Department.

IQ scores of recruit classes, New York Police Academy, 1962–69

Class	Number	Average IQ
February 1962	239	107.99
April	92	107.84
June	147	105.14
October	335	108.55
December	385	105.83
February 1963	448	106.96
June	709	105.65
October	577	107.98
January 1964	548	105.57
April	475	105.05
October	141	109.55
December	156	108.93
February 1965	379	104.51
April	376	105.60
July	362	105.64
September	264	103.84
December	408	105.42
March 1966	304	108.66
March [1]	24	111.71
June	619	105.76
August	423	105.64
September	568	102.88
March 1967	605	105.38
May	249	106.12
February 1968	362	105.00
July	239	99.50
March 1969	527	98.30
May	358	93.19
June	699	99.20

[1] Policewomen.

Source: New York Police Academy.

The Character Investigation

The final and very critical requirement, "proof of good character" is defined in the notice of examination as follows:

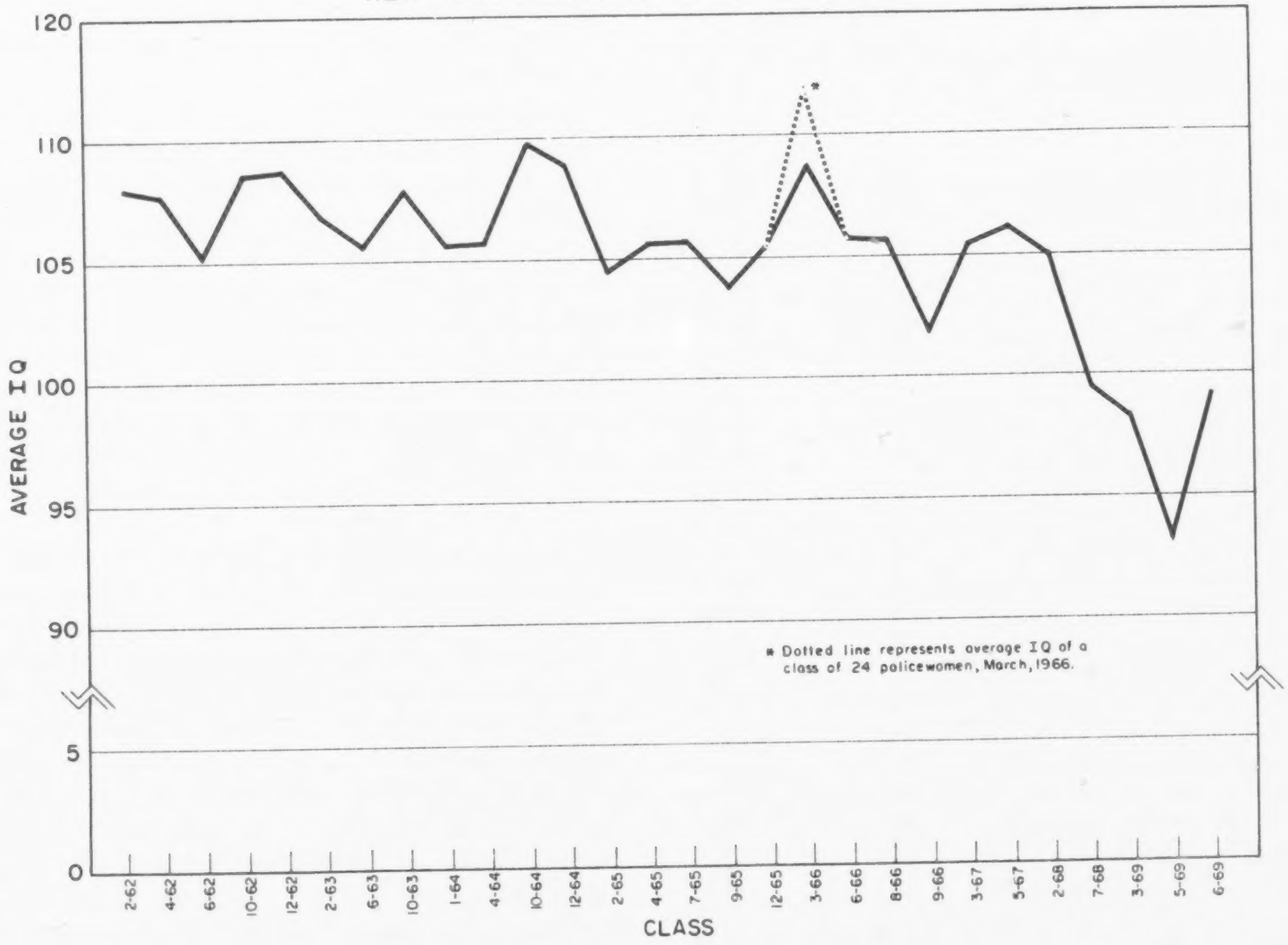
> Proof of good character will be an absolute prerequisite to appointment. The following are among the factors which would ordinarily be cause for disqualification: (*a*) conviction of a misdemeanor or an offense, the nature of which indicates lack of good moral character or disposition toward violence or disorder; (*b*) repeated conviction of an offense, where such convictions indicate a disrespect for the law; (*c*) repeated discharge from employment where such discharge indicates poor performance or inability to adjust to discipline; (*d*) addiction to narcotics or excessive use of alcoholic beverages; (*e*) discharge from the Armed Forces other than the standard honorable discharge. In accordance with the provisions of the administrative code, persons convicted of a felony are not eligible for positions in the uniformed forces of the police department. In addition, the rules of the city civil service commission provide that no person convicted of petty larceny, or who has been dishonorably discharged by the Armed Forces shall be examined, certified or appointed as a patrolman.

After passing the written and physical exams, the candidate prepares a detailed 12-page application form for the personnel screening unit of the police department where a police investigator is assigned to the case. A sample of this form appears at the end on pages 40 to 51. In the past the investigating staff was able to complete all the investigations prior to the date of appointment. Manpower demands have reduced the complement of investigators so that relatively few cases are completed prior to the applicant's attendance at the police academy and some are even outstanding beyond his assignment to a field command.

The incomplete investigation may later prove to be a disqualifying one and, if so, it is then necessary to discharge an employed police officer, whose conduct on the force may have been exemplary, for causes completely unrelated to his employment record. This inequity operates against both the recruits and the department. The many recruits whose investigations are incomplete are uneasy about the final result, a damaging factor to their morale and one which may distract them from their studies during their training period. The employed patrolman who is later discharged has lost a considerable financial investment in uniforms and equipment. He has given up his previous employment and may now have difficulty obtaining another job with the police discharge on his record. The department, too, suffers because, although it may be argued that the applicant should have known he was disqualified, it may also be that he did not. In any event, it would seem that the human sympathy of hearing board members, later to be described, would incline them to be more lenient with the employed policeman than to a preemployment candidate with no investment at stake. Moreover, the policeman, ultimately discharged in this manner, may bear a lasting grudge at the apparent unfairness, a grudge which may create problems for other policemen who come in contact with him in the future.

The results of the character investigation may be exemplified by the data on those candidates passing the test in January 1967. Of the total number investigated, only 2 percent were scored as

IQ SCORES OF RECRUIT CLASSES
NEW YORK POLICE ACADEMY 1962-1969



"excellent" by the investigators, 22 percent were marked "good," 31 percent "questionable" and 45 percent closed out because of withdrawals or uncooperativeness. Thus, only 24 percent were accepted unequivocally. Thirty-one percent were required to go before at least one hearing board (there are two). The candidate hearing board, sometimes known as the "prime" board is staffed by three superior officers of the department. For the group in question, this board approved 82 percent of the cases coming before it and disapproved 18 percent. The disapproved persons then had the opportunity to appeal to the principal hearing board, which is staffed by two deputy commissioners, the chief clerk of the department and five high-ranking police officers. This board approved 53 percent of the appeals and disapproved 47 percent. Although it is not possible to calculate the ultimate disapprovals exactly because individuals involved in some cases may have ceased further efforts at any one of the levels at which disqualification occurred, interviews with investigators indicate that about 9 percent of the original "questionables" are finally rejected. The proportion may be even smaller. However, it must be remembered that 45 percent of the original list was closed out for various reasons.

The Otis Higher Test of Mental Ability is administered to all candidates prior to entrance into the department. This is not a qualifying test, since it is administered by the department, not the testing agency, and no candidate is rejected as a result of a low score. Those scoring below 90 are retested and if they repeat below 90 are given a nonverbal paper and pencil test, the "Revised Beta." So much criticism has been leveled against the validity of IQ tests as a measure of intelligence for those with language barriers or the culturally deprived that the performance test, the Beta, being relatively independent of English reading ability, was added in order to gain some reasonably valid measure for the groups in question.

In order to test minority group criticism of the validity of IQ scores for incoming police candidates, the results of the July 1968 class were analyzed by ethnic groups and no significant differences were found between the average of the class as a whole ($n=245$) and those of the black ($n=30$) and Puerto Rican ($n=17$) minority groups. In the latter case, the variation within the group was so small that only one of the 17 scored below 90, whereas 31 of the total class were below that level. It would appear that, for police candidates at least, the IQ score does not discriminate to any appreciable extent between ethnic groups (see table below).

As indicated, the mental ability test is not a screening device. It was initiated in 1956 as a check on the level of passing grades admitted by the Department of Personnel. Over the years the average has remained close to 105, a relatively acceptable level, although a higher one would be desirable. In the years 1956–62, for which data are not available, lists were considerably longer than at present and it was possible to observe differences between classes appointed from the top one-third of the list, the middle, and the lowest one-third. These usually ranged from 110 to 105 to 102. Current lists being smaller and more frequent, this kind of analysis is more difficult because there is some overlapping of lists within classes. Thus, the lowest part of one list might be found in the same academy class as the top of the immediately subsequent list.

Class of July 1968, ethnic background analysis and mental ability scores

Ethnic background:	Number	Percent
White	198	81
Black	30	12
Puerto Rican	17	7
Total	245	100
Mental ability score:		
70 to 79	2	1
80 to 89	29	12
90 to 99	102	43
100 to 109	79	33
110 to 119	20	8
120 to 129	7	3
Total	[1] 239	100

[1] Average 99.5; standard deviation 9.4; 6 scores were not available.

A sharp drop off in intelligence occurred in the class of July 1968. In analyzing the list position of this class, it was found that the bulk of the class (80 percent) had taken Department of Personnel examination No. 8046 and that no member of the class had scored well enough to be placed above No. 1914 on the eligibles' list. The remaining 20 percent had also placed in the lower parts of other lists. The dropoff has continued through the classes of March 1969 and May 1969, the latter class having reached an alltime low of 93.19. Even though the class of June 1969 made some recovery, its average was only 99.20, a considerable distance from the scores of earlier years. The data in the table on page 31 indicates a difference between the first 1,000 recruits appointed in 1962, the earliest group for whom IQ data is available, and the last 1,000 appointed in 1969 of 3.51 points on the arithmetic mean. This difference is significant at the 1-percent probability level, indicating that it is highly unlikely to have been a chance occurrence. This reduction in intelligence level poses training problems, for, regardless of whether the test measures something called "true" intelligence, it is related to the ability to read, write, and, in general, to academic achievement. Deficiencies in this area demand tremendous motivation for academic success and it is debatable whether learning under such a high drive results in the same performance as similar learning by those with greater academic aptitude. Revisions in instructional methodology required to suit the new type recruit being attracted to the department will be outlined in later sections of this report.

Notwithstanding the altered training techniques available to adapt to the new situation, there are minimum levels beyond which it is not safe to drop if the department is to employ men who are capable of solving problem situations and reacting quickly and effectively when such situations appear suddenly. Certainly, a class average of 93.19 must, at least, approach this minimum.

This city is not alone with respect to the apparent declining quality of incoming police recruits. Whatever the reason, the same phenomenon is taking place in most parts of the country. In project staff discussions with police administrators and training personnel in the various police agencies visited, many of these persons were frank to confess problems of a similar nature.

In any case, the trend should be reversed. It is therefore recommended that the police department take up this matter with the City Department of Personnel. That agency does not have access to police IQ data and may be unaware of developments. Together, steps can be taken to regulate the quality of intellect succeeding on the entrance examination.

Age of Entering Recruits

Three classes of recruits were studied, the class of February 1968 ($n=350$), July 1968 ($n=229$) and March 1969 ($n=411$). The arithmetic mean age of the February class was 25; however, the greatest proportion of the group (22 percent) was 24. Eleven had reached age 30 (3 percent). Not a single member of the class was only 21. However, the February class was tested later than the other two groups because of lengthy field experience, which added about 8 months to the age average as well. If this delay is taken into account, the average age would be reduced to 24.24.

The age of the class of July 1968 averaged 24.97, about 8 months older than the other two classes. It will be recalled from the discussion of IQ that this class was drawn from the bottom of eligibles lists and their appointment was, therefore, delayed. Thus, not only do those who bring up the rear on the entrance exam tend to be of lower mental ability but also they would tend to be older. Therefore, the two factors should not be confused as casual relationships. The bulk of the class (21 percent) were at the 25-year level.

The March 1969 class, like the February class, averaged 24.24 years at time of entrance. Of this class 18 percent was at the 25-year level.

The grand total of the three classes ($n=990$) averaged 24.24 years of age with the bulk of the population (75 percent) between the ages of 22 and 26. Certain inferences can be drawn from these data: Most of the men can retire at a fairly early age, somewhere between 42 and 46, for this is a comparatively youthful group. In one respect it is to the advantage of the Department to recruit young men because they are less set in their ways and more susceptible to adapting to the established norms. However, if the established norms are other than those which the department wishes to perpetuate, some training measures need to be taken to interrupt the traditional process. The training escort program, described in a later section of this report, is designed precisely for that purpose.

Ages of entering recruits, New York City Police Department, 1968–1969

Age	Class of February 1968		Class of July 1968		Class of March 1969		Total of all classes	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
21	0	0	20	9	29	7	49	5
22	41	12	24	10	82	20	147	15
23	49	14	24	10	71	17	144	15
24	76	22	24	10	63	15	163	16
25	62	18	49	21	66	16	177	18
26	44	13	26	11	39	9	109	11
27	23	7	23	10	26	6	72	7
28	22	6	19	8	21	5	62	6
29	22	6	11	5	9	2	42	4
30	11	3	9	4	5	1	25	3
Total	350	101	229	98	411	98	990	100
Average	25.00		24.97		24.14		24.24	
Standard deviation	2.21		2.50		2.18		2.42	

It is encouraging to see younger people interested in a police career. Older men may be motivated to become policemen because they have failed at other occupational efforts and are fleeing to the protection of civil service. There is some reason to believe that those under 25 assume the occupation with a more positive attitude. Additionally, policing is an occupation that makes considerable physical demands upon the individual, and younger people are more likely to respond to these demands successfully over the 20 years or more that they spend in the police job. It must be admitted, however, that the more mature judgment of the older person may offset some of the advantages of youth. Nonetheless, the advantage of a youthful police force is not negated by the argument of maturity.

Domestic Status of Recruits

Of the 1,036 recruits in the three classes tested, 366, or 35 percent, were single; 664, or 64 percent, married; and 6, or 1 percent, divorced. (See the following table.) Since the average age of the group was 24.2, it would appear that police applicants tend to marry rather early, a tendency which may indicate their interest in security and stability. These are characteristics of the police job as well as marriage. Perhaps they will also fill these needs occupationally. Arthur Niederhoffer has indicated that security is the "foremost lure for the typical candidate."

Domestic status of recruits, New York City Police Department, 1968–1969

	Class of February 1968		Class of July 1968		Class of March 1969		Total of all classes	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Single	125	34	84	35	157	37	366	35
Married	241	66	159	65	264	62	664	64
Divorced	0	0	0	0	6	1	6	1
Total	366	100	243	100	427	100	1,036	100

Father's Occupation

As indicated in the table below, the bulk of recruits were reared in lower socioeconomic surroundings, if we assume that unskilled workers are at the lower end of the wage spectrum. A relatively small percentage of the recruits did not respond and were relegated to the unskilled category. A total of 616 were polled on the question. An appreciable proportion (22 percent), however, come from families whose principal breadwinner was a skilled worker and another 13 percent were fathered by a professional, proprietor, or manager. Thus, a total of 35 percent of the current classes of recruits come from, at least, an upper middle class background. Another 17 percent are from what are probably lower middle class homes.

Recruits, New York City Police Department, father's occupation[1]

	Class of July 1968		Class of March 1969		Total of all classes	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Professional or proprietor	13	5	27	7	40	6
Manager	25	10	20	5	45	7
Skilled worker	50	21	87	23	137	22
Unknown – unskilled	115	48	171	45	286	46
Military	0	0	2	1	2	0
Service – clerical	37	15	69	18	106	17
Total	240	99	376	99	616	98

[1] Information not available for class of February 1968.

These data are somewhat at variance with those of Arthur Niederhoffer and J. H. McNamara who made similar studies of police recruits about 1964 and 1961, respectively.[21] With due consideration for certain errors resulting from combining categories in order to compare the two earlier studies, it would appear that the present group far exceeds the earlier groups studied in the proportion coming from lower class, unskilled labor type homes. The table on father's occupation shows that 46 percent of the present recruits' fathers were unskilled workers. Niederhoffer's results showed only 9.3

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[21] Eilbert, L. R., J. H. McNamara, and V. L. Haven, "Research on Selection and Training for Police Recruits," First Annual Report, Pittsburgh, Pa. (American Institute for Researc,h, 1961), p. 193.

percent and McNamara's only 10.1 percent of the fathers to be unskilled workers. Although Niederhoffer classifies all categories from clerical worker to unskilled farmworker as the working classes, there are undoubtedly levels of working class occupations considered substantially higher than others. It would appear from the data that the early socioeconomic background of recruits has declined considerably in the relatively few years intervening between the earlier researchers' studies and the present one.

Another interesting difference appears in the proportion of recruits whose fathers were policemen. McNamara reports that one-third of the 28.1 percent who were service-household workers were police officers or had police-type duties. A special study of 1,226 men in the May and June 1969 classes of recruits found only 27, or 2.2 percent, whose fathers were policemen. This difference is so striking that it appears to bear interesting implications, which must, of course, be speculative in nature. It cannot be explained by the increase in black and Puerto Rican recruitment—increases which, while they are high percentagewise as compared with previous intake, do not represent a large number of persons. However, this increase may be a partial explanation. The more likely explanation may be related to the decline in socioeconomic status of the home background. Policemen are oriented toward improving their own educational status and that of their families. Assuming that they have been successful in encouraging their sons to complete college, these young men may now be seeking professional careers of a more traditional sort than that of the uniformed policeman. Perhaps some enter the Government law enforcement services, like the FBI and the Treasury agencies. However, it does not augur well for police recruitment of college graduates if the sons of policemen seek other employment.

The proportion, in the present study, whose parent was a professional or manager is almost identical with the findings of Niederhoffer, namely about 13 percent. It differs considerably from the 22 percent found by McNamara. This is consistent with the findings in other areas indicating a movement in father's occupation in the past 8 or 9 years from skilled workers, managers, and professionals to unskilled and service workers. Niederhoffer's study was more recent.

The table on pages 38 and 39, "Previous occupations of recruits," indicates that the bulk of the recruits center about the service-clerical area (36 percent). The skilled workers (30 percent) compare favorably with this group, and the unskilled category is 22 percent, somewhat lower than the other two. McNamara found a somewhat different relationship in 1961, namely 52 percent service, 36 percent skilled, and only 3 percent unskilled. It is the last category that shows a striking difference and it is concordant with the finding in the previous paragraph concerning the trend in father's occupation. A far greater proportion of present-day recruits were previously unskilled laborers than was the case in 1961. Only a few years have intervened, which makes the difference significant and provides an indication of the occupational areas from which recruits will continue to come in the next few years.

The average time spent by the recruits in their previous occupations was 4.02 years. Considering that the average age was only 24.2, it would appear that most have had only one previous employment and have been rather steady at it, a promising sign for their tenure as policemen.

Educational Levels of New York City Policemen

The table on page 37 depicts the educational levels achieved by New York City police. In analyzing these data one must be aware that for the earlier years the figures on college degrees may not reflect the entering status of the individuals concerned. Many policemen have earned degrees after their appointment, the largest proportion at the Bernard M. Baruch College and the John Jay College of Criminal Justice of the City University of New York. The figures for more recent years, however, probably are a fairly valid reflection of the college degree level at the time of appointment. Assuming that a few recruits appointed since 1965 have completed degree requirements and ignoring the earlier years, the data would indicate that there has been no appreciable decline in the number of entrants with either the associate or bachelor's degree. Notwithstanding the stability of the data, the proportion of entrants who are college graduates is extremely low and has been for many years. Arthur Niederhoffer has stated that during the years 1953 to 1963, of 15,000 policemen appointed, only 320 (just over 2 percent) were college graduates. If the associate degree were included, the figure might be somewhat higher, but even at its highest point the total of all degrees would be only slightly higher than 5 percent. For the later years, with more accurate data, the high point is 4.1 percent in 1965 (and some of these degrees may be subsequent to appointment). The lower proportions for the years 1968 and 1969 are too small and too recent to indicate an adverse trend. Nonetheless, in the educational area, as in the areas previously discussed, there is no reason for optimism concerning an improvement in recruit standards which would contribute toward professionalization. The one hopeful sign is in the numbers of incumbents who are presently attending college, a fair proportion of whom should ultimately earn degrees.

There has been considerable speculation that increasing numbers of entering recruits are establishing their eligibility through the equivalency diploma rather than high school graduation. The concern of the administrators is in the possible lower academic ability of the equivalency diploma holders. Although, for 1968, this group reached a level of 20.2 percent, this is not a cause for disquiet. During 1960, of the 555 appointed, 34 percent entered by the equivalency option, and between 1961 and 1965 the proportion was consistently over 19 percent. True, the 1966 percentage was 16.6 percent and during 1967 and 1968 the proportion has risen about 2 percentage points a year; perhaps a trend is being established. The proportion, however, is still far below the years 1957–60, when there was no particular uneasiness about the ability of such diplomates. Notwithstanding this reassurance, the performance of these individuals should be evaluated for possible inadequacies which might make it advisable to discontinue the option.

Educational achievement as of 1969 of members of the New York Police Force, appointed between 1955 and 1969

Year of appt	Total appt'd	Less than high school		High school equivalency		High school graduate		Some college study[1]		Associate degree[1]		Bachelor's degree[1]		Master's degree[1]	
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
1955	2,944	504	17.1	512	17.4	1928	65.5	446	15.1	60	2.0	78	2.6	5	.2
1956	1,486	134	9.0	337	22.7	1015	68.3	322	21.7	40	2.7	41	2.8	3	.2
1957	1.636	5	.3	537	32.8	1094	66.9	290	17.7	33	2.0	49	3.0	3	.2
1958	419	1	.2	117	27.9	301	71.8	87	20.8	3	.7	14	3.3	4	1.0
1959	863	1	.1	237	27.5	625	72.4	172	19.9	15	1.7	38	4.4	5	.6
1960	555	—	—	191	34.4	364	65.6	85	15.3	7	1.3	10	1.8	—	—
1961	1,401	—	—	277	19.8	1124	80.2	368	26.3	29	2.1	43	3.1	2	.1
1962	1,120	—	—	215	19.2	905	80.8	316	28.2	24	2.1	30	2.7	3	.3
1963	1,479	—	—	292	19.7	1187	80.2	369	24.9	34	2.3	27	1.8	2	.1
1964	1,171	—	—	224	19.1	947	80.9	284	24.2	24	2.0	22	1.9	—	—
1965	1,690	—	—	333	19.7	1357	80.3	430	25.4	29	1.7	41	2.4	1	.1
1966	1,977	—	—	329	16.6	1648	83.3	489	24.7	38	1.9	58	2.9	2	.1
1967	1,090	—	—	199	18.3	891	81.7	267	24.5	11	1.0	24	2.2	—	—
1968	3,239	—	—	655	20.2	2584	79.8	481	14.8	45	1.4	44	1.4	—	—
1969	1,196[2]	—	—	263	22.0	933	78.0	224	18.7	15	1.2	12	1.0	1	.1

[1] Last 4 columns are included within the "High school graduate" category.

[2] To June 30.

Note.—As of 1969 doctoral degrees were held by 5 members of the uniformed force.

Source.—New York City Police Department.

No. of years	Professional proprietor								Manager								Skilled								Service-clerical			
	February 1968		July 1968		March 1969		Total		February 1968		July 1968		March 1969		Total		February 1968		July 1968		March 1969		Total		February 1968		July 1968	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	N o.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
1	3	21	2	20	3	50	8	27	2	18	...		5	24	7	17	3	4	7	9	14	14	24	9	12	9	12	18
2	3	21	2	20	1	17	6	20	1	9	5	56	9	43	15	37	10	12	11	14	15	15	36	14	27	21	14	21
3	3	21	2	20	1	17	6	20	3	27	...		2	10	5	12	13	15	9	11	14	14	36	14	27	21	11	16
4	1	7	1	10	1	17	3	10	3	27	1	11	2	10	6	15	15	18	14	18	17	17	46	17	21	16	5	22
5	1	7	...		...		1	3	...		...		1	5	1	2	14	16	6	8	15	15	35	13	15	11	6	9
6	1	7	...		...		1	3	...		...		...		...		9	11	8	10	6	6	23	9	16	12	6	9
7	1	7	1	10	...		2	7	...		3	33	...		3	7	6	7	3	4	4	4	13	5	2	2	2	3
8	...		1	10	...		1	3	1	9	...		1	5	2	5	9	11	6	8	3	3	18	7	3	2	1	1
9	1	7	1	10	...		2	7	1	9	...		1	5	2	5	2	2	6	8	4	4	12	5	4	3	1	1
Over 9	...		...		...		...		...		...		...		...		4	5	9	11	7	7	20	8	4	3	...	
Total..	14	5	10	5	6	2	30	3	11	4	9	4	21	6	41	5	85	28	79	37	99	27	263	30	131	43	68	31
Average No. of years	3.8		4.0		2.0		3.4		3.8		3.9		2.8		3.3		4.9		5.1		4.3		4.7		3.9		3.4	

Service-clerical				Unknown—unskilled								Military								Sum of rows							
March 1969		Total		February 1968		July 1968		March 1969		Total		February 1968		July 1968		March 1969		Total		February 1968		July 1968		March 1969		Total	
No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
31	26	55	17	9	18	7	16	26	25	42	21	....		....		1	6	1	3	29	10	28	13	80	22	137	15
29	24	70	22	7	14	11	24	15	15	33	17	3	21	....		3	17	6	16	51	17	43	20	72	20	166	19
20	17	58	18	8	16	5	11	14	14	27	14	2	14	....		1	6	3	8	56	18	27	13	52	14	135	15
14	12	50	16	4	8	6	13	13	13	23	12	6	43	4	80	8	44	18	49	50	16	41	19	55	15	146	16
10	8	31	10	7	14	3	7	12	12	22	11	....		....		....		....		37	12	15	7	38	10	90	10
4	3	26	8	2	4	2	4	5	5	9	5	....		....		3	17	3	8	28	9	16	7	18	5	62	7
5	4	9	3	5	10	3	7	5	4	12	6	....		1	20	....		1	3	14	5	13	6	13	4	40	4
4	3	8	3	1	2	4	9	7	7	12	6	1	7	....		....		1	3	15	5	12	6	15	4	42	5
3	2	8	3	2	4	1	2	3	3	6	3	....		....		2	11	2	5	10	3	9	4	13	4	32	4
1	1	5	2	4	8	3	7	4	4	11	6	2	14	....		....		2	5	14	5	12	6	12	3	38	4
121	33	320	36	49	16	45	20	103	28	197	22	14	5	5	2	18	5	37	4	304	100	216	100	368	100	888	100
3.2		3.5		4.3		4.2		3.8		4.0		4.6		4.6		4.3		4.5		4.28		4.25		3.66		4.02	

List Number	
Examination Number	

CITY OF NEW YORK

POLICE DEPARTMENT

INSTRUCTIONS

Failure to return this questionnaire, properly completed, within ten days, will result in removal of your name from the eligible list.

Answer **every** question. **Leave no blank spaces.** If a question does not apply to you, write N/A (Not Applicable). Where an answer box is provided, enter YES or NO.

Section 50, Civil Service Law states that a candidate may be rejected "Who has intentionally made a false statement of a material fact or practiced, or attempted to practice, any deception or fraud in his application, in his examination, or in securing his eligibility for appointment."

New York City Administrative Code, Section 1151—9.0 states: "Any person who shall knowingly make a false statement or who shall knowingly falsify or allow to be falsified any certificate, form, signed statement, application or report required under the provisions of this code or any rule or regulation of any agency promulgated thereunder, shall be guilty of an offense and upon conviction thereof shall be punishable by a fine of not more than $500 or imprisonment of a term of not more than 60 days or both."

Personally typewrite or print this form: (1) legibly, (2) in blue or black ink only, and (3) in duplicate. (Carbon copy permitted.) See oath on last page.

Where you are directed to give further details on a separate sheet:

1. Use **ONLY** 8½ x 11 inch paper.
2. Submit it in **duplicate.** (Carbon copy permitted.)
3. Put your name and list number at the top of **each** sheet.
4. Precede each answer with the number of the question being answered. More than one answer may be put on a sheet.

1.	SURNAME	FIRST NAME	MIDDLE NAME	LIST OTHER NAMES YOU HAVE BEEN KNOWN BY AND ATTACH STATEMENT GIVING REASONS THEREFOR

2. BIRTH RECORD

MONTH	DAY	YEAR	PLACE OF BIRTH (City, County, State, Country)

3. CITIZENSHIP RECORD

If a naturalized citizen, check below if you are a citizen by virtue of a naturalization certificate issued to:

☐ Self ☐ Parent ☐ Spouse

INVESTIGATION OF APPLICANT—QUESTIONNAIRE

P.A. 15 (Rev. 2-65)

4. RESIDENCES SINCE LEAVING ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

(Start with earliest address and include present one)

TO MONTH - YEAR	NUMBER AND STREET	POST OFFICE AND ZONE NO.	CITY	STATE

5. DESCRIPTION OF PRESENT RESIDENCE

NAME WITH WHOM PRESENTLY RESIDING	RELATIONSHIP	TELEPHONE NO.	APT. NO.	FLOOR	☐ FRONT ☐ REAR ☐ NORTH ☐ EAST ☐ SOUTH ☐ WEST

6. LIST ALL ARRESTS AND ANY POLICE INVESTIGATIONS NOT RESULTING IN ARREST

(Include Juvenile Delinquency, Youthful Offender, Wayward Minor and Family Ct. Proceedings)

DATE OF OCCURRENCE	CITY OR TOWN AND STATE	CHARGE	DISPOSITION

7. SUMMONS RECORD

(List ALL summonses served on you or your vehicle by a police officer, court or other authority, in any state, for violations of parking regulations, traffic regulations, vehicle and traffic laws or any other criminal law. ALSO list court summonses in civil matters)

DATE OF VIOLATION	CITY OR TOWN AND STATE	VIOLATION	COURT DISPOSITION AND DATE

8. COMPLAINT, COURT AND HEARING RECORD

(List ALL incidences in which you were a complainant or witness in a criminal case, except as listed in question 6; also administrative hearings, or investigative hearings by a city, state, federal agency or grand jury)

DATE	CITY OR TOWN AND STATE	COURT OR INVESTIGATIVE BODY	WHO WAS DEFENDANT AND WHAT WAS THE PURPOSE OF THE HEARING?

9. MOTOR VEHICLE OWNERSHIP RECORD

(List ALL motor vehicles ever owned by you, together with all license plate numbers ever issued to you. Also list vehicles for which you generally had permission to drive, e.g., owned by parent, wife, husband or other relative, business partner, etc.)

LICENSE PLATE NO.	USED IN WHAT YEAR(S)?	MAKE OF VEHICLE	YEAR OF MFR.	OWNER OF VEHICLE

10. UNPAID SUMMONSES

Do you now have ANY unpaid summonses outstanding against you for parking or any other violation in the use of the above vehicle(s) ? If YES, give details on separate sheet.

Answer ☐

11. REVOCATION OR SUSPENSION OF VEHICLE REGISTRATION

Have you ever had your motor vehicle registration revoked or suspended? If YES, give details on separate sheet.

Answer ☐

12. PISTOL AND REVOLVER RECORD

(List ALL pistols and revolvers presently possessed or possessed in the past. If possessed under a license, or other authority, give necessary information)

PERIOD COVERED		MAKE	MODEL	SERIAL NO.	CALIBRE	LICENSE NO. (OR AUTHORITY TO CARRY)	ISSUING AGENCY
FROM	TO						

LOYALTY

INSTRUCTIONS:

The words "subversive organization" as used here means any group or organization which supports, follows, or which is in sympathy with the principles of Communism or any other subversive doctrine or is listed by the U.S. Attorney General as subversive.

Answer YES or NO to each question. If YES, explain details on separate sheet.

13. Have you ever by word of mouth or in writing advocated, advised, or taught the doctrine that the government of the United States of America, or of any state, or of any political subdivision thereof should be overthrown or overturned by force, violence, or any unlawful means?

Answer ☐

14. Are you now or have you ever been a member of any subversive organization?

Answer ☐

15. Have you ever paid, contributed, collected or solicited any money or dues to, for or in behalf of any subversive organization?

Answer ☐

16. Have you ever been connected or affiliated in any manner with or have you ever attended any meetings of any subversive organization?

Answer ☐

17. Do you belong to a religious sect, or hold any belief, which would prevent you from vowing allegiance to the flag and constitution of the United States of America or from taking a life in the carrying out of your duties?

Answer ☐

18. Have you ever participated in any parade, picket line, delegation or demonstration sponsored or organized by any subversive organization?

Answer ☐

19. Have you ever been a member of or attended any school, camp, class or forum sponsored by any subversive organization?

Answer ☐

20. Have you ever signed or solicited others to sign any petition sponsored or issued by any subversive organization, or any petition which has as its purpose the aiding of any person, cause or program connected with any subversive organization?

Answer ☐

---

21. FAMILY MENTAL HEALTH

(If a member of your immediate family has been treated or examined for a mental disorder, list th [illegible] lowing information)

DATE	NAME OF PERSON	RELATIONSHIP	INSTITUTION OR DOCTOR WHO TREATED	ADDRESS OF INSTITUTION OR DOCTOR

22. VETERAN DISABILITY CLAIM RECORD

(List all applications filed for disability with the Veterans Administration)

DATE	CLAIM NO.	REASON	GRANTED OR DENIED	% DISABILITY GRANTED	% PRESENT DISABILITY

23. WORKMAN'S COMPENSATION RECORD

(List all claims made for injuries, or illnesses, received in connection with employment)

DATE	COMPANY AND ADDRESS	DIAGNOSIS OF INJURY	DISABILITY AWARD GRANTED

24. EDUCATION RECORD

(List all schools and colleges you have attended)

FROM - TO MONTH & YEAR	NAME OF SCHOOL	MAILING ADDRESS	DAY OR EVENING	DIPLOMA OR DEGREE RECEIVED (YES OR NO)

25. EMPLOYMENT/UNEMPLOYMENT RECORD—SOCIAL SECURITY NO.____________________

(List ALL employments and periods of unemployment over 30 days, including part-time jobs, accounting for all time since leaving high school, up to the present.)

Do you object to your present employer being contacted? ☐ Yes ☐ No

FROM - TO MONTH & YEAR	NAME AND MAILING ADDRESS OF EMPLOYER OR UNEMPLOYMENT INSURANCE OFFICE WHERE YOU FILED FOR BENEFITS	POSITION HELD (INDICATE IF OFFICER OF COMPANY)	REASON FOR LEAVING

26. EMPLOYMENT DISCIPLINARY RECORD

(List those employers who either (1) disciplined you, (2) discharged you, or (3) requested you to resign. Give details on separate sheet.)

EMPLOYER'S NAME	DATE	NAME OF SUPERIOR INVOLVED

27. LICENSE RECORD—(OTHER THAN DRIVER, VEHICLE OR PISTOL)

(List every license you, or any corporation or partnership of which you were an officer, director or partner, either (1) filed for, (2) possessed, or (3) for which you acted as sponsor, voucher, character witness. Include professional licenses)

INDICATE SELF OR LIST COMPANY & ADDRESS	KIND OF LICENSE	DATE OF FILING	GRANTED OR DENIED	GOVERNMENTAL AGENCY	EVER REVOKED OR SUSPENDED (YES OR NO)

28. CIVIL SERVICE RECORD

(List every application you have made with a governmental or quasi-governmental agency or authority, e.g., N.Y.C. Department of Personnel, N.Y. Port Authority, etc.)

DATE	NAME THE CITY, STATE OR FEDERAL AGENCY OR OTHER AUTHORITY	POSITION FILED FOR	INDICATE IF: ACCEPTED, REJECTED, OR ON ELIGIBLE LIST	REASON FOR REJECTION, WITHDRAWAL OR NON-ACCEPTANCE

29. SOCIAL STATUS

(List all marriages you have had and the present status thereof; if divorced, annulled or separated give details of date, court, offending party as decreed by law and reason therefor on separate sheet. Begin with first marriage. If single, write SINGLE on first line)

DATE	HUSBAND'S NAME OR WIFE'S MAIDEN NAME	DATE OF BIRTH	NAME AND ADDRESS OF AGENCY ISSUING MARRIAGE CERTIFICATE	INDICATE PRESENT STATUS OF MARRIAGE (LIVING WITH SPOUSE, DIVORCED, WIDOWED, ANNULLED, ETC.)

30. RECORD OF PARENTHOOD

(List every child born to you)

DATE OF BIRTH	PLACE OF BIRTH	NAME OF CHILD	WHO IS MOTHER OR FATHER?	CHILD SUPPORTED BY WHOM? (INDICATE IF DEAD)	WITH WHOM DOES CHILD RESIDE?

31. PATERNITY PROCEEDINGS

Have you ever been involved as plaintiff or defendant in paternity proceedings or accused of causing the pregnancy of any female not your wife? If YES, give details on separate sheet.

Answer ☐

32. DIVORCE ACTION

Have you ever been named as co-respondent in a divorce action? If YES, give details on separate sheet.

Answer ☐

33. ACTIVE DUTY MILITARY RECORD

(If service for a foreign government, indicate country under serial number)

DATES		BRANCH OF SERVICE	SERVICE SERIAL NO.	RANK	TYPE OF DISCHARGE RECEIVED	REASON FOR DISCHARGE
FROM	TO					

34. CHANGE OF DISCHARGE OR SEPARATION NOTICE

Has your discharge or separation notice ever been corrected or changed? If YES, indicate details below.

Answer ☐

Changed From ____________________ To ____________________ Authority ________________

35. MILITARY DISCIPLINARY RECORD

(List ALL disciplinary actions against you, including formal charges as well as company punishments, whether found guilty or not)

DATE	CHARGE AGAINST YOU	TYPE COURT MARTIAL OR OTHER DISCIPLINARY PROCEEDINGS	DISPOSITION OF CHARGES

36. RESERVE AND/OR NATIONAL GUARD RECORD

(List present or past service in any Reserve or National Guard Unit)

INDICATE RESERVE OR NATIONAL GUARD	PERIOD		BRANCH OF RESERVE OR NATIONAL GUARD	UNIT	PRESENT OR LAST RANK	MAILING ADDRESS OF UNIT
	FROM	TO				

37. RESERVE AND/OR NATIONAL GUARD DISCIPLINARY RECORD

(List all disciplinary actions against you in Reserve or National Guard Service, including company punishment)

DATE	CHARGE AGAINST YOU	TYPE COURT MARTIAL OR OTHER DISCIPLINARY PROCEEDING	DISPOSITION OF CHARGES

38. SELECTIVE SERVICE RECORD

(List present classification and any past IV-F, I-Y, I-A-O, I-O or I-W classification given you)

DATE	CLASSIFICATIONS	LOCAL BOARD NO. AND ADDRESS	REASON FOR CLASSIFICATION IF IV-F, I-Y, I-O, I-A-O OR I-W

39. DEBTS

(List all outstanding debts or judgments against you or your spouse or for which you are a co-maker)

CREDITOR	ORIGINAL AMOUNT	PRESENT AMOUNT OWED	AMOUNT AND PERIOD OF PAYMENT	AMOUNT OF ARREARS, IF ANY	PURPOSE OF LOAN OR REASON FOR JUDGMENT

40. CIVIL ACTION

Were you, or your spouse, ever involved in a lawsuit or settlement for any purpose; or could such a possibility ensue as a result of a recent occurrence or transaction? If yes, give details on separate sheet.

Answer ☐

41. BONDING RECORD

(List all applications made to bond you and dispositions thereof)

DATE	NAME AND ADDRESS OF INSURER	REASON	ACCEPTED OR REJECTED

42. SAVINGS ACCOUNTS

(List Savings, Checking, Postal Savings, Building & Loan, Brokerage and Other accounts maintained by you or by your spouse)

NAME AND ADDRESS OF INSTITUTION	NAME IN WHICH ACCOUNT IS HELD	TYPE	PRESENT BALANCE

43. STOCKS AND BONDS

(List all securities, rights, warrants, warrants stock options owned or controlled by you or your spouse)

DESCRIPTION OF SECURITIES	NO. OF SHARES	DATE OF PURCHASE	INITIAL COST	YEARLY INCOME THEREFROM

44. REAL ESTATE

(List all real estate holdings or investments wholly or partially owned by you or your spouse)

DESCRIPTION	LOCATION	DATE OF PURCHASE	INITIAL COST	AMOUNT OF MORTGAGE OR LIEN	YEARLY INCOME THEREFROM

45. LOANS RECEIVABLE

(List all loans you or your spouse have made to others and the income therefrom)

TO WHOM MADE	ADDRESS	DATE	BALANCE DUE	INTEREST RECEIVED

46. MOTOR VEHICLES AND/OR BOATS OWNED

(List all motor vehicles and/or boats presently owned by you or by your spouse)

MAKE	YEAR	REGISTRATION NUMBER	COST	DATE OF PURCHASE

47. OTHER ASSETS

(Have you or your spouse cash holdings or other assets not listed valued over $1,000? If yes, list on separate sheet)

Answer ☐

48. INHERITANCE BENEFITS

(List all insurance policies, estates, trust funds, etc. of which you or your spouse are beneficiaries)

INSURED OR MAKER OF WILL, ETC.	ADDRESS	AMOUNT OF BENEFITS

49. BUSINESS INTERESTS
(List any business you or your spouse have a financial interest in—other than listed in questions 43 and 44)

BUSINESS	AMOUNT OF INTEREST	YEARLY INCOME	NAME AND ADDRESS OF PARTNERS

50. MOTOR VEHICLE OPERATOR RECORD
(List all chauffeur or operator licenses presently held from this state or any other state or territory)

(CHECK)		NUMBER	RESTRICTIONS	ISSUING STATE	LICENSE OR PERMIT EVER REVOKED OR SUSPENDED (YES/NO). IF YES, GIVE DETAILS ON SEPARATE SHEET	LICENSE RESTORED (YES/NO)
OPR.	CHAUF.					

51. OTHER DRIVERS' LICENSES
Have you held driver's license in the past from any other state? If yes, give details on separate sheet.

Answer ☐

52. MOTOR VEHICLE ACCIDENT RECORD
(List every accident you have ever been involved in as a driver, passenger or pedestrian)

DATE	CITY AND STATE OR LOCATION IF N.Y.C.	INDICATE INJURIES TO YOU OR OTHERS	SUMMONS RECEIVED (YES/NO)

53. FAMILY RECORD
(List alphabetically, by last name, spouse (maiden or premarriage name), father, mother (maiden name), sisters, brothers, aunts and uncles—LIVING OR DECEASED. Include relatives by marriage)

RELATIONSHIP	SURNAME, FIRST, MIDDLE	ADDRESS (STATE DECEASED, IF SO)	OCCUPATION	DATE OF BIRTH OR AGE

54. ARRESTS

Has any member of your immediate family (father, mother, sister, brother, husband or wife) ever been arrested? If yes, give details on separate sheet.

Answer ☐

55. OTHER ARRESTS

To the best of your knowledge has any other relative, associate or person residing with you, although not related, ever been arrested? If yes, give details on separate sheet.

Answer ☐

56. FINGERPRINT RECORD

(List information about fingerprints previously taken, except for this application)

WHEN	WHERE	PURPOSE

57. LIFE INSURANCE POLICIES

(List all life insurance policies for which you have applied)

DATE	COMPANY AND ADDRESS	RESIDENCE WHEN APPLIED	ACCEPTED OR REJECTED (GIVE REASON FOR REJECTION ON SEPARATE SHEET)

58. ASSOCIATION MEMBERSHIP RECORD

(List every social or fraternal organization of which you are or have ever been a member)

FROM	TO	NAME OF ORGANIZATION	ADDRESS	TYPE OF ORGANIZATION

59. LABOR UNION

Has your name ever been submitted or used as a trustee, officer in any official capacity, in any labor, trade union, etc., organization or affiliate? If yes, give details on separate sheet.

Answer ☐

60. ANY ADDITIONAL INFORMATION

Do you have any knowledge or information, in addition to that specifically called for in the preceding questions, which is or which may be relevant, directly or indirectly, in connection with an investigation of your eligibility or fitness for the position applied for; including but not limited to knowledge or information concerning your character, physical or mental condition, temperance, habits, employment, education, subversive activities, family, associations, criminal record, traffic violations, residence or otherwise? If yes, give details on separate sheet.

Answer ☐

PENALTY FOR FALSIFICATION: Knowingly falsifying any statement made herein is an offense punishable by a fine or imprisonment or both. (N.Y.C. Administrative Code 1151-9.0)

Signature of Applicant date

STATE OF

CITY OF ss.:

COUNTY OF____________________________

I, ____

being duly sworn depose and say that I am the above named person. I signed the foregoing statement. I personally read the answers to each and every question therein and I do solemnly swear that each and every answer is full, true and correct in every respect.

____

(Candidate sign here)

Sworn to before me, this______________________

day of____________________________19____

____

(Notary Public or Commissioner of Deeds)

DO NOT SIGN BELOW UNTIL DIRECTED

____________________________	________________
(Candidate sign here)	Date

____

(Signature of Investigating Officer)

2.4 Constraints Imposed by Personnel Selection Policies

In order for the proposed training and education program to be implemented effectively, it is imperative that recruits be appointed at regular 10-week intervals in groups of about 500. This premise is basic to the program recommended in this report. One of the principal obstacles to the proper training of policemen in the New York City Police Department has been the irregular nature of appointments. The anticipation of continuously expanding numbers of entering recruits poses logistical problems for the administrator of the training function.

In the first place, the intake in New York City has occurred at sporadic intervals, affording little opportunity for providing a systematic and continuous training program. Recruits in varying numbers are appointed 1, 2, and 3 months apart and then long periods elapse without any appointments. These appointments cause an overlap in the training program and the accumulation of recruits at varying stages of the training cycle creates classroom scheduling problems, forces the program into overtime hours and creates a permanent emergency in the assignment and separation of instructors. The following table depicts the most recent workload situation at the academy. It is not atypical of the usual fluctuations during other periods.

Recent work load in recruit training,
New York City Police Department

Month	Probationary patrolmen and policewomen	Police trainees	Total
December 1968	1,452	446	1,898
January 1969	1,776	189	1,965
February 1969	2,178	124	2,302
March 1969	1,949	159	2,108
April 1969	1,949	119	2,068
May 1969	1,299	163	1,452
June 1969	941	79	1,020

At the present time recruit companies have had to be expanded to 40 men each, twice as large as the 20 the proposed program recommends. It can be seen from the table that the recruit training facilities are also taxed by the use of the same classroom by the police trainees. The gymnasium and pool are also shared by the cadet program (manpower development training program). Programs other than recruits which share the presently available classrooms at the academy are as follows:

The John Jay College of Criminal Justice uses 14 classrooms during the regular college semesters from 9 a.m. to 10:30 p.m., Mondays to Fridays, and uses six classrooms during the summer session 3 days a week.

The cadet program (MDTP) uses four classrooms at various times from 3:30 p.m. to 10:30 p.m.

The advanced and specialized training section uses classrooms at various times for the following:

- Criminal investigation courses
- Patrolman-detective refresher courses
- Command courses
  - Executive management courses
  - Career development courses (auditorium)
  - Personnel testing
  - Other inservice programs

Other department units use classrooms for various training programs, including:

- Motorcycle district
- Fingerprint technicians
- Narcotics division
- Detective bureau
- Medical section
- School crossing guards

In order to accommodate the recent exceptionally large numbers of recruits, it has been necessary for the training program to adopt a 7-day, 8 a.m. to 12 midnight schedule, hardly an ideal learning situation.

The classroom space logistics are self-evident. Not so obvious is the personnel and morale problem of the constantly rotating assignments of the younger instructors. The recruiting of instructors to meet the fluctuating population has become a major chore for the administrator of the academy and understandably so when one considers the disruption caused by irregular assignments. Population explosions demand abrupt increases in faculty strength and intervening slack periods require the return of instructors to regular precinct assignments. This poses problems for both the officers themselves and for the precinct commanders concerned. The commanders, not knowing when they will have the officers available, do not plan on having them at all. Thus, being unscheduled for duty, they are relegated to such outside assignments and other emergency duties as may arise. The latter are regarded as unpleasant tasks. Many instructors have refused to seek a return to academy assignment when the training program is renewed, and others who do return are uncertain as to how long the reassignment will continue.

There is a dual problem created thereby for the commanding officer of the Police Academy (hereafter referred to as COPA). It is difficult for him to recruit sufficient qualified faculty when the emergency need arises, and the morale of his present instructional staff is damaged by the knowledge that their return to precinct tasks may occur at any time subsequent to the completion of academy training by any single recruit class, thereby shifting the remaining corps of senior instructors to other recruit classes. This morale deterioration is inevitably reflected in job attitudes. The instructors, knowing their tenure is limited, take a rather dispirited view toward their assignment, a phenomenon which adversely affects their enthusiasm and dedication, factors so essential to the effective teacher. The recruits, for their part, are subject to a constantly rotating series of instructors apparently assigned to them randomly, for they are not aware of the seniority considerations. Thus, even the precinct command is affected by the irregular appointment of recruits. If civilian instructors of professional rank are to be employed, they will not be subject to such reassignment when their need ceases. It will be utterly impossible to avoid regular scheduling of appointments under the proposed program without creating periods of idleness for the nonpolice instructors.

The process for the appointments of probationary patrolmen is subject to a set of bookkeeping rules which are generally applicable to all city departments. It is understandable that in a city as large as New York, where annual expenditures reach astronomical proportions, there would have to be fiscal policies and procedures, controls, checks and balances. However, in any large bureaucracy of lengthy tenure many such rules become traditionalized beyond the period of their usefulness. Moreover, practices on the part of subordinate administrators, sometimes dilatory, which may operate to relieve pressures on their office, become entrenched to a point at which they assume the aspect of policy and are accepted as essential by transacting agencies. There is a good deal of room for such unofficial delays in the procedure for the appointments of probationary patrolmen.

Appointments to the department are initiated by the chief clerk, police department, as follows:

> In the first instance, vacancies (based on established quota) for the rank of probationary patrolmen must exist.
>
> Request to fill vacancies is forwarded to the vacancy control board, mayor's office, for verification that vacancies do exist.
>
> The request in turn is forwarded to the budget director, who issues a certificate of approval which is valid for 30 calendar days.
>
> Simultaneously, a request is forwarded to the New York City Department of Personnel to certify a sufficient number of eligibles to fill the vacancies requested. It takes 1 to 2 weeks to receive the certificate list. The certificate list is also forwarded to the medical unit and personnel investigation section.
>
> The chief clerk designates an appointment date.
>
> Prior to appointment date, the medical unit conducts medical examinations and the personnel investigation section checks the list for eligibles who have been rated disapproved.
>
> Appointments of approved eligibles are made on the appointment date.

The first step indicates that vacancies must exist. It would appear that anticipated vacancies, even where the probability of their existence is virtually a certainty, would not fulfill this requirement. In view of the fact that the current proposal envisions appointments of about 500 in each increment, the first requirement has a built-in provision that the department, from time to time, would have to be at least 500 below quota before the procedure could even be initiated. Whatever vacancies occur during the period required to fulfill the subsequent six steps may be added to the base figure of 500.

The ensuing three steps are outside the control of the operating agency—in this case the police department. It is evident, however, that the process consumes more than the 2 weeks involved in preparing a certificate list. The probabilities are that, excepting in emergency cases (riots and the like), the time elapsed would approximate 1 month during which period on the average another 150 policemen would retire, thus increasing the quota shortage. The final three steps, even if expedited, would add another 2 weeks to the quota lag.

With all the complications involved in the above process, there is an additional obstacle to appointments in the form of a mandatory accrual fund which may further delay approval. Budget appropriations for the fiscal year provide for the salary requirements for department personnel, based on established quotas. Frequently, the budget director directs that appointments and promotions to vacant positions be deferred for the purpose of creating an accrual fund to meet anticipated department expenditures which are not provided for in the current budget. This may delay a request as long as 6 months. It can be readily seen that the process of deferring appointments to vacant positions can have a serious effect on any planned program of making organized and regulated appointments.

2.5 Influence of Line Attitudes

A reward system operates within the New York City Police Department, as it does in all law enforcement agencies. As will be noted, one aspect of the total reward picture, rewarding the "good" policeman, the one who prevents crime on his post, assumes a position of outstanding importance. Identifying preventive patrol and measuring its actual effectiveness in the performance of each individual patrolman has long been thought impossible. A suggested method for the accomplishment of this "impossible" evaluation will be offered.

The rewards fall into three broad categories: Official departmentwide awards; official precinct awards; and informal precinct awards.

The first class is clearly defined in the rules and procedures and consists of the various levels of department recognition. These are awarded for heroic acts or meritorious acts indicating extraordinary courage, ingenuity or intelligence. Bravery, intelligence, and merit are unquestionably important attributes of good police performance. However, the awards included in this category carry with them promotional credit which may be inappropriate to the act of bravery in question unless one associates the trait with supervisory or administrative potential. This is a relatively minor consideration, though, and may be relegated to a position of secondary consideration in the light of more important issues.

Official departmental recognition awards, in order of importance, are as follows:[22]

Department Medal of Honor
Police Combat Cross
Medal for Merit
Honorable Mention
Exceptional Merit
Commendation

These are awarded only for acts of bravery in various degrees; the first two only for gunfights, the rest for more routine acts of courage.

Meritorious Police Duty
Excellent Police Duty

These two are awarded both for minor acts of bravery and for major accomplishments of an administrative nature.

Achievement Citation

This is awarded only for the successful completion of an academic year of study in a recognized institution of higher education.

A number of awards are given to recruits completing the police academy training program. Some of these awards are provided through gifts from outstanding citizens, others are provided by the police commissioner and the chief inspector. It has been traditional that these awards or trophies consist of a revolver. It has been suggested that awards might take other forms, particularly the awards for academic achievement where scholarships or books might be appropriate. Currently, the Patrolmen's Benevolent Association and other groups do provide scholarships to recruits. It is anticipated that a diversified type of award would help to reduce the emphasis upon the firearms aspect of the policeman's role.

In addition to heroic and intelligent acts, department recognition may also be granted for clusters of arrests. Three arrests for driving intoxicated, two arrests for automobile grand larceny, or two felony arrests for narcotics laws violations within 1 year quality an officer for the award "Excellent Police Duty." The donation of 8 pints of blood over any period of time warrants the same award. In recent years there are about three times as many awards distributed as previously, indicating, perhaps, some increasing awareness of the importance of positive motivation. An extraordinarily high percentage of these cluster arrests result in conviction, thus negating a possible criticism of "bounty hunting."

Official precinct awards are usually the function of the precinct commander. He is authorized by regulation to permit a patrolman who makes a good arrest to be excused from one tour of duty. The nature of the good arrest is frequently related to the precinct crime problem and the captain will consider arrest activity in recommending appropriate officers for plainclothes and detective duty.

The final category of award, the informal precinct type, is probably the strongest immediate motivator of behavior because it is activated at the patrolman level of execution and has a profound influence on the day-to-day occupational existence of the individual officer. These informal awards are more frequently available because opportunities for them are more numerous. Normal personnel turnover creates openings more often than the more stable, higher level detective and plainclothes assignments.

The informal reward system, with its unstructured approach, permits the precinct commander and other superior officers an excellent opportunity to demonstrate their ingenuity in devising motivational techniques. It also allows considerable discretion in their choice of commendable behavior, the criterion measure for reward. Notwithstanding the available latitude, there is surprisingly little variation from precinct to precinct, either in the choice of reward or in specific job performance selected for it. An unwritten program has developed by a process of trial, error, and experience. Its homogeneity is further reinforced by the cross-pollination process of periodic transfer which rotates captains from precinct to precinct and probably encourages the simplest and most immediately effective techniques to be perpetuated. However, there is little intent to create any long-term improvement in job performance on the part of the superiors who employ the informal devices in point. They are content to produce an immediate and necessary result in the individuals directly concerned and to generate imitative behavior on the part of the other patrolmen.

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[22] Rules and Procedures" ch. 26, par. 7.0.

Informal rewards are exemplified by (but not limited to) —

Special favorable assignments.—Radio motor patrol; hospital, ballpark, beach, or other preferred assignments; choice patrol posts.

Preferred duties.—Clerical; verification of election registry; station house assignment, such as safety, pistol licenses, plainclothes, and the like.

Preferred hours of work.—Day tours—day squad; switching of tours of duty.

Exemption from unpleasant assignments.—Special posts—"fixers"; out-of-precinct details—"flying"; posts with extended school crossings.

Frequently, undesirable behavior is discouraged at the precinct level by informal devices of less impact than official disciplinary charges. The devices employed to effect this result are, in general, the reverse of the positive measures mentioned, such as assignment to an unfavorable post, special duty, and the like. It is unnecessary to recite an extended list of the possible negative motivators.

Perhaps the most interesting aspect of the precinct reward system is the criterion measures selected for the favored treatment. Essentially, behavior similar to that which warrants formal recognition but in lesser degree could provide a basis for precinct reward. This would consist of arrests of a kind of second magnitude, less spectacular and requiring routine perseverance as contrasted with the exceptional intelligence and heroism required for department recognition. A willing attitude and competence in performing certain unpleasant tasks might also receive favorable precinct attention. Thus, rewards are reserved for those who perform outstanding acts, and these acts, because they are reinforced by reward, are repeated and repeated and rewarded and rewarded until the point is reached where the individual policeman on patrol is hardly regarded as performing police duty at all unless he is in the process of performing one of the rewarded acts or is doing something leading up to some presently measured function.

Lost in the policeman's preoccupation with heroism, arrests, and law enforcement is that aspect of police work which provides the essence of what the public wants and for which it needs the police—crime prevention. It would not be unreasonable to estimate that little more than 1 percent of the average New York City policeman's time is occupied in the actual process of enforcing the law. This estimate includes the issuance of summonses. Another 2 or 3 percent of his time may be spent in miscellaneous duties, such as aiding sick and injured persons, giving directions, assisting at accidents. Being conservative, we might say that all items of police hazard and service activity occupy less than 10 percent of the patrolman's working hours. The remaining 90 percent of his time is spent in what has been termed "preventive patrol."

It may be inferred from the proportion of his time spent in crime prevention that this is by far the major function and purpose of the police officer in this city and probably in all cities. An informal survey among a cross section of ranking members of the department leaves no doubt that the prevention of crime is their overwhelming choice as the primary function of the police. It is logical to assume that if effective crime prevention patrol follows the accepted pattern of human behavior, some policemen must be better at it than others. Some, too, must be trying a little harder and treating the task with more intelligence than others. There are no formal or informal awards of any kind for effective crime prevention patrol in itself. Notwithstanding the allocation of much patrol time, crimes which could have been prevented by proper patrol do occur and they occur with more frequency on some posts than on others. What is the degree to which patrol performance is responsible for this failure, and the extent to which performance in the field can be improved?

Although there is a program for evaluating superior officers in the New York City Police Department, there is presently no such formal process for assessing the work performance of the patrolmen. It is important that there be a performance evaluation of the patrol officer at the level of execution for many reasons. Primary among those is, of course, the inevitable improvement in the quality of the service delivered by personnel who are aware that their behavior is being observed and advantages that would accrue to the department in the process of setting up the means for evaluation.

First of all, there is no clearly defined concept of the effective police officer or "good cop," as he is known to his fellow officers. It may be reasonably inferred that the "good cop" is the one who performs his tasks in, at least, an acceptable manner or better. This definition, to be implemented, would require the spelling out of its two elements, the nature and identification of the police tasks (a job analysis) and the criteria for arriving at an evaluation of acceptable or better performance.

At this time a system of official and unofficial rewards operates within the department both at the local level and departmentwide. Except for a few department-sanctioned awards, provided by local newspapers, the department awards carry no financial benefit for the recipient. These rewards, and comparable disciplinary actions, are the only evaluative criteria presently available to the superior who has had little or no direct contact with an individual officer. Suffice it to say, there are no periodic evaluations of patrolmen from the time they complete their probationary period to the time they leave that rank for one reason or another.

The inadequacies of the rewards system as an evaluative and motivational device have been discussed. The objection most often raised by knowledgeable superiors is that the most important police function, the prevention of crime, goes unrewarded because there are no means for measuring the performance of preventive patrol. It should not be inferred from this emphasis on preventive patrol that it is regarded as important to the exclusion of other police factors. There can be no meaningful evaluation of the patrolman's performance without a full consideration of his effectiveness in the prevention of crime.

The following factors are suggested as being integral to effective police patrol:

The prevention of crime.—Speedy dispersal of disorder.

The arrest or summonsing of offenders (under immediate circumstances, their long-range investigation being primarily a detective function).—Above includes lesser law enforcement activity.

Protection of human life and property.—Recovery of stolen property under immediate circumstances not involving detective investigation. Reporting relevant criminal information for detectives. Reporting of post conditions.

Relations with the public in routine interpersonal contact.—Diplomatic solution of family trouble calls, neighbor difficulty and other similar type altercations.

Additional factors not previously mentioned.—These factors, in order to provide a meaningful, objective evaluation, must be set up in measurable terms. Quantifiable criteria must be established. Each factor must be analyzed and its relevant elements detailed separately.

Factor: The prevention of crime

The effectiveness of the patrolman in preventing crime on his post is assumed to be a function of the dedication, intelligence, and natural aptitude he devotes to his routine patrol job. Extraneous factors such as chance unquestionably enter into the frequency and nature of crime occurrence, but, as will be seen, the resultant error can be minimized by the application of statistical probability theory. The foot patrolman could be the subject for initial experimentation in evaluating preventive patrol. Although he is a fast disappearing phenomenon in scientific police patrol, the foot patrolman still operates in considerable numbers in New York City. In 1969, almost one-third of the 16,200 precinct-assigned patrolmen fall into the foot patrol category. He is the smallest individual patrol unit and once a method has been devised for evaluating his performance it may be applicable as a basis for a similar evaluation of radio motor patrol and other forms of preventive patrol. Some neighborhoods, because of their nature, are more prone to the incidence of crime than others. What is more interesting is the likelihood that, regardless of the quantity of post hazards, crimes occur more frequently when some patrolmen are working than others.

Patrol procedures can be detailed and patrolmen can be ordered to follow them. It might even be possible to provide such close supervision that every element of the procedures would be executed. But even with such a formalized approach, the human element would still be the largest factor in preventive patrol. Routine attention can amount almost to indifference. Dedication and maintained interest, the opposite end of the scale, can produce an alert, sustained patrol that should be effective in preventing crime. One means for attaining these would be to reward patrolmen for their exercise. In order to reward dedication and interest it would be necessary to evaluate their operational manifestation, the effectiveness of preventive patrol.

How does one evaluate the effectiveness of patrolmen in preventing crime? No such measure is presently available. The principal obstacles to such an evaluation are in the variant nature of the crime picture from post to post. Crime fluctuates not only between posts but within the same post from hour to hour, day to day, season to season. If the same patrolman were assigned to the same post every day, it would be manifestly difficult to compare his performance with that of other patrolmen assigned to other posts which vary from the first in activity. Although the "steady" post probabily would be the ideal patrol situation, the practice of such assignment is not a general one in New York City. Patrolmen are rotated from post to post on an irregular basis. It is possible, however, to evaluate the performance of men by comparing the crime activity on each post during each officer's patrol period. Comparisons between a variation of performance on "steady" posts where they exist will also be feasible by the same method.

Such a study would be primarily statistically oriented and would involve the extensive use of computers. Posts would be studied in terms of crime incidence by time of day, day of week, and season as measured by complaints received, U.F. 45 (public morals complaint) forms prepared, and Y.D. 1's (juvenile report) submitted. Included in the factors for post evaluation would be such influences as trends, nationwide, citywide, borough, division, and precinctwide. Probability estimates could be computed for the various chronological classifications previously enumerated, not only for the incidence of crime in general, but even for specific type crime incidence to be expected for any given time interval.

Once having established statistical norms by post and time, it would be a relatively simple matter to measure deviations from the expectation. Minus variance, indicating less crime incidence than statistical expectation, would reflect favorably upon patrol performance. Plus variance would have to be carefully studied to determine the extent to which job related absence of the patrolman at time of occurrence reduced his responsibility. Absences might be a result of performance of called-for services of various sorts, meal period, or some other authorized act. The time of occurrence might present a problem at times. Genuine doubts about patrol responsibility would have to be resolved in favor of the officer.

Once having identified the effective patrol officer by the foregoing method, his reward could be measured in terms of his effectiveness. For example, a patrolman whose performance variance over the 6-month period was minus could be paid a salary bonus for the succeeding 6 months commensurate with the magnitude of the minus figure. If this favorable performance were continued for the succeeding 6-month period, the bonus might be continued in the same measure as his performance score might warrant.

The monetary bonus is considered the most appropriate type of award because it reinforces the rewarded act in the same terms as the basic motivator, salary. Furthermore, it does not affect irrelevant aspects of the occupational career such as promotional credit for nonsupervisory excellence, as has been previously discussed. To reward the effective performer with time off is paradoxical in that the administrator thus reduces his own total patrol effectiveness by depriving the department of the services of its best man during the reward period. Other awards, such as medals, ribbons, achievements citations, and the like, do not have universal appeal as motivators, particularly to the financially pressed heads of families. The monetary reward has the additional feature of flexibility in that it can be adjusted to fit the degree of patrol proficiency demonstrated. It would also be appropriate by the same rationale to attach a monetary consideration of a suitable sort to the present citations for heroism and other presently recognized aspects of unusually effective performance.

Chaper 3. Training and Education of the New York City Policeman

3.1 Departmental Policy in Respect to Training and Education

The New York City Police Department, by far the Nation's largest, is an organization of almost 35,000 police and civilian personnel. Its budget is about one-half billion dollars a year of which about 95 percent is spent for salaries and fringe benefits. Clearly, the department is an organization which, by any standard, is equivalent to a large business enterprise and, by itself, is larger than the entire public employment in many of the Nation's cities. The responsibilities of the department are stated in general terms as the protection of life and property, the preservation of the public peace, the prevention of crime, the detection and arrest of offenders and the enforcement of all laws, ordinances, and provisions of the New York City Administrative Code over which the department has jurisdiction. In the general statement of these responsibilities, as broad as they are, there is no reference to the type of services which, as has been seen in chapter 2, occupy most of the time of the police—the type of services which include aided cases, assistance to the public and the like.

In the development of a force of sworn and civilian personnel to carry out the responsibilities of the department, it is policy to maintain a structure of training and education which will take civilians and make them into patrolmen, take patrolmen and make them into superior officers and maintain the level of competence of the force on a continuing basis. This involves a fundamental commitment to training and education. Paragraph 1.0 of chapter 20 of the rules and procedures of the department states:

> A vigorous and continuous training program for all members of the force is essential for effective operation. Training must be adapted to changing conditions. This imposes a serious responsibility on every superior officer to thoroughly train members under his supervision by instruction and personal example. Emphasis must be placed on ethical conduct and the police officer's responsibility to the community.

To a major degree, the implementation of this general policy statement has been assigned to the Police Academy. Weaknesses in the inservice training and field training processes are considered in chapter 5 and chapter 12 and a restructuring of the resources available to the academy in these areas is recommended. In a more fundamental sense, however, the effective implementation of the commitment to training and education depends upon policies adopted at the highest level in the department. The commanding officer of the Police Academy has no control, at the present time, over the numbers and sequence of inputs of recruits. The erratic character of appointment policy has been discussed at several points in this report and represents a fundamental constraint on the effectiveness with which the commitment to training can be implemented. Another aspect which calls for a high level policy decision is the need to maintain uninterrupted training for recruits. In response to a series of crises over the past 2 years recruit training has, on occasion, been interrupted by sending the recruit classes into the field as an additional reserve force of uniformed personnel. Unfortunately, such field duty under crisis conditions is not structured as an educational experience and, in any case, the effectiveness of the recruit forces under these circumstances may be questioned. Following a period of interrupted training, Police Commissioner Howard R. Leary stated in a memorandum to the chief inspector dated November 6, 1968, that—

> It is of the utmost importance that the balance of training, interrupted for various reasons, be completed in full without further interruption. I have directed the hief of personnel to that effect, and he will immediately institute such training schedules as will carry out this policy.

Hopefully, the increased strength of the department and the alleviation of social conditions contributing to recent crises will make unnecessary emergency measures which adversely affect recruit training. It was felt appropriate by the staff of this project to recommend a basic policy commitment, explicitly embodied in a departmental directive, to assure the priority of uninterrupted training for recruits. The new curriculum, which is discussed in detail in chapter 5, requires such an uninterrupted training process because of the interactive phases of the curriculum, the use of a police-civilian instructional staff and the fact that the arming of recruits will be postponed until the completion of the introductory phases of training. Policies within the department in respect to standards of proficiency in the recruit training process are spelled out in paragraph 3.0 through 3.5 of the rules and procedures. It is stated that a recruit's failure to attain a grade of 70 percent in the academic, firearms, and physical instruction "shall be considered an indication of unfitness and incompetency." In the case of such a failure by a recruit the commanding officer of the Police Academy "shall make recommendation to the police commissioner that the services of such probationer be immediately terminated." While these sections of the rules and procedures are quite specific there is some doubt that the standards of proficiency and the recommendation to terminate recruits who do not meet these standards have been applied rigorously with recent recruit classes. For example, in 1968 only one recruit was dropped by the department for academic reasons. Ten others who failed to measure up scholastically were given remedial assistance and were retested; all eventually passed and were appointed. The staff of this project feels that reasonable standards of proficiency should be consistently required of all recruits and that those who cannot qualify after an extra period of special help should be terminated. Recommendations discussed in chapter 6 in respect to support services at the academy, particularly in terms of counseling and remedial education, should assist the commanding officer of the Police Academy in more effectively identifying recruits for whom a recommendation to terminate services is appropriate.

The effectiveness of the recruitment process for the department, in terms of the educational level of recruits upon appointment, depends upon the state of the labor market and the number of persons in the New York City community with specific levels of educational achievement. Thus, even though high school graduation was not required in earlier years, certain classes of recruits were notable for the proportion of members with college education. The recruit class of 1940 is remembered as a fabulous class with an exceptional number of men with college background. The greater comparative attractiveness of the police job at that time, in terms of labor market conditions, accounts in large measure for the high quality of that class.

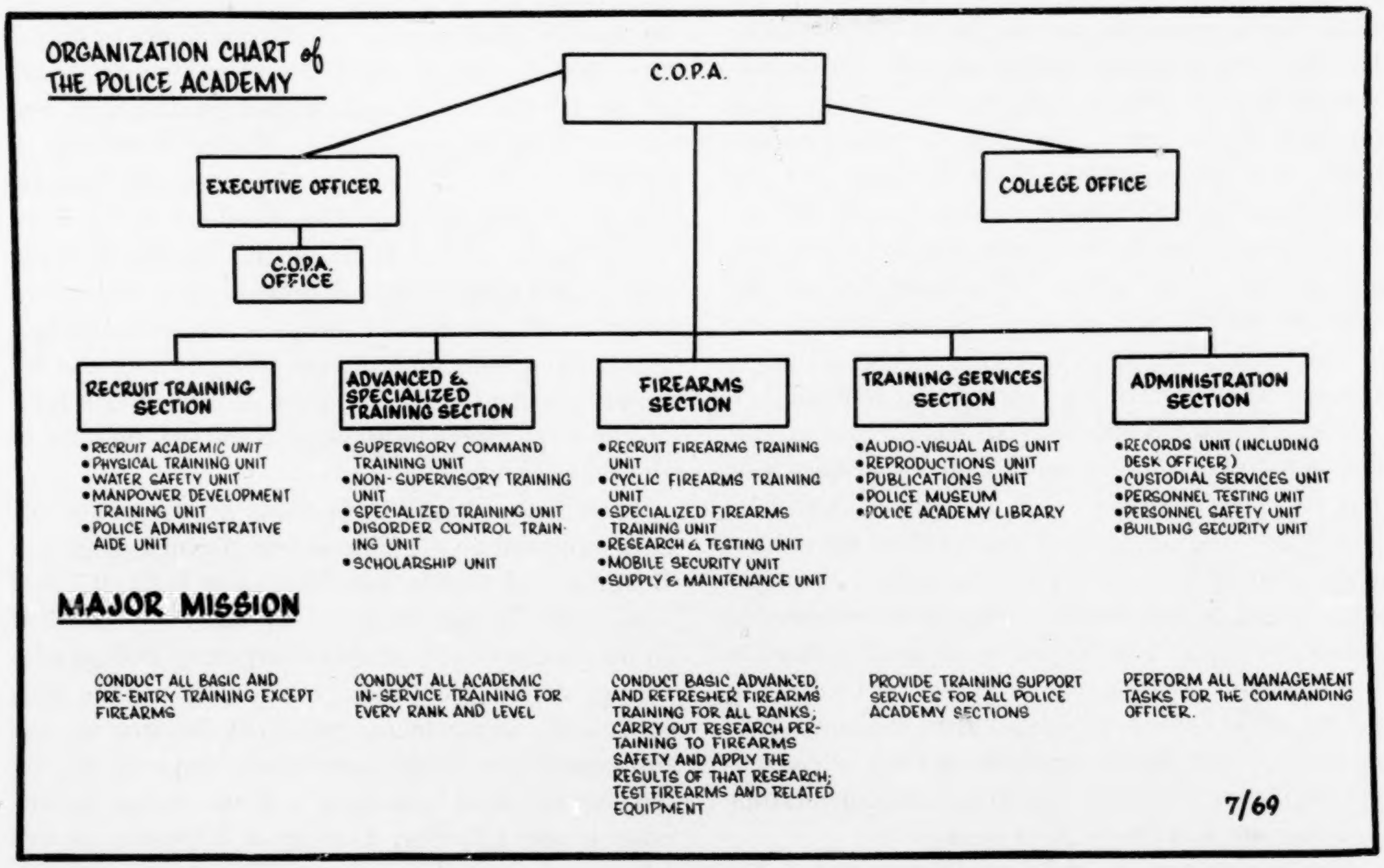
The table on page 37 shows the educational achievement as of 1969, of members of recruit classes appointed between 1955 and 1969. It will be noted that the group with less than high school education disappeared completely as a consequence of the introduction of the requirement that all persons be high school graduates or have a high school equivalency diploma. In general, the number of persons holding college degrees in recent recruit classes has been a very small fraction of the class, and only a few have had any college study. Essentially, therefore, it seems unrealistic to anticipate any significant improvement in the educational background of recruit classes in the next few years. The development of higher standards of education will depend on departmental policies which will impact upon the members of the force after appointment. It is for this reason that the staff of this project has recommended an intensified program of postrecruit education and, in the longer term, mandatory standards of college education for superior officers. In conclusion, the education level of the department will depend on the policies of the department.

Experience in the early years of the police science program at the Bernard M. Baruch School of Business and Public Administration indicated that a majority of the members of the force enrolled in the program were simply completing college education which had been interrupted when they joined the department, primarily because of the limitations on college attendance imposed by departmental work schedules. More recent experience at the John Jay College of Criminal Justice suggests that more members of the department are beginning their collegiate education through the facilities available at that college. New incentives, as recommended in this report, will be necessary, however, to substantially increase the percentage of the force taking advantage of existing college educational facilities and opportunities.

3.2 Police Academy—Present and Proposed Structure

The principal agency for carrying out the education and training function within the department is the Police Academy. There are certain specialized unit training functions carried out within commands, but essentially the academy is the focus of all training efforts. The present organization of the academy is shown on the chart below. This organization chart reflects the most recent reorganization of the academy, which became effective in July 1969. The commanding officer of the Police Academy, currently a deputy inspector, has an executive officer who reports to him and who is in charge of the COPA office. Also, there is a "college office" which currently is inactive because of the changed relationship between the academy and the John Jay College of Criminal Justice. The two agencies are no longer officially affiliated.

The work of the academy is organized into five sections: Recruit training section; advanced and specialized training section; firearms section; training services section; and administrative section. The key units are the first three. The recruit training section conducts all recruit and preentry training (cadet and trainee programs) except firearms training. The advanced and specialized training section conducts academic inservice training for every rank and level. The firearms section is responsible for all training in that specialized area. The training services section and the administrative section provide essential support functions. The organization chart also shows the various units within the several sections and their major missions.


ORGANIZATION CHART of THE POLICE ACADEMY
C.O.P.A.
EXECUTIVE OFFICER
C.O.P.A. OFFICE
COLLEGE OFFICE
RECRUIT TRAINING SECTION
• RECRUIT ACADEMIC UNIT
• PHYSICAL TRAINING UNIT
• WATER SAFETY UNIT
• MANPOWER DEVELOPMENT TRAINING UNIT
• POLICE ADMINISTRATIVE AIDE UNIT
ADVANCED & SPECIALIZED TRAINING SECTION
• SUPERVISORY COMMAND TRAINING UNIT
• NON-SUPERVISORY TRAINING UNIT
• SPECIALIZED TRAINING UNIT
• DISORDER CONTROL TRAINING UNIT
• SCHOLARSHIP UNIT
FIREARMS SECTION
• RECRUIT FIREARMS TRAINING UNIT
• CYCLIC FIREARMS TRAINING UNIT
• SPECIALIZED FIREARMS TRAINING UNIT
• RESEARCH & TESTING UNIT
• MOBILE SECURITY UNIT
• SUPPLY & MAINTENANCE UNIT
TRAINING SERVICES SECTION
• AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS UNIT
• REPRODUCTIONS UNIT
• PUBLICATIONS UNIT
• POLICE MUSEUM
• POLICE ACADEMY LIBRARY
ADMINISTRATION SECTION
• RECORDS UNIT (INCLUDING DESK OFFICER)
• CUSTODIAL SERVICES UNIT
• PERSONNEL TESTING UNIT
• PERSONNEL SAFETY UNIT
• BUILDING SECURITY UNIT
MAJOR MISSION
CONDUCT ALL BASIC AND PRE-ENTRY TRAINING EXCEPT FIREARMS
CONDUCT ALL ACADEMIC IN-SERVICE TRAINING FOR EVERY RANK AND LEVEL
CONDUCT BASIC, ADVANCED, AND REFRESHER FIREARMS TRAINING FOR ALL RANKS; CARRY OUT RESEARCH PERTAINING TO FIREARMS SAFETY AND APPLY THE RESULTS OF THAT RESEARCH; TEST FIREARMS AND RELATED EQUIPMENT
PROVIDE TRAINING SUPPORT SERVICES FOR ALL POLICE ACADEMY SECTIONS
PERFORM ALL MANAGEMENT TASKS FOR THE COMMANDING OFFICER.
7/69

The work of the academy is conducted at the Police Academy building 235 East 20th Street, New York City, which was completed in 1964. This building, the largest physical facility devoted to police training in the United States, was a dramatic improvement over the temporary and completely inadequate facilities occupied in succession by the academy at the 84th precinct in Brooklyn, and 400 Broome Street and 7 Hubert Street in Manhattan.

Occupancy of the new Police Academy building at the present time is as follows: Starting from the top, the eighth floor is devoted to the police laboratory, ballistics unit, and bomb squad, and the seventh is shared by the medical unit and personnel screening unit, which screens incoming recruits. The sixth floor is occupied by the library, administrative offices, a conference room, and a faculty lounge and locker room. The fifth floor is principally devoted to classrooms, which are shared with the John Jay College of Criminal Justice. There are 13 regular classrooms, one seminar room, a lecture hall, and simulated station house muster room. The fourth floor houses the recruit administrative offices, visual aids unit, the electronic data processing unit, eight classrooms, one seminar room and a lecture hall. The data processing unit is a relatively recent occupant, having been forced to expand out of its original housing at the headquarters annex because of space limitations and a need for electric power of a greater capacity than provided in the less modern building. This unit occupies about one-half of the north wing. On the third floor there are locker rooms, a proposed cafeteria, and the muster deck.

The auditorium, with 495 seats, the police museum and a recruit muster deck share the second floor, and the first floor is occupied by the gymnasium and open campus. The pool is located in the basement, as are the physical school offices, and a garage with accommodation for 38 cars. The subbasement is occupied by the firearms range and reproduction unit.

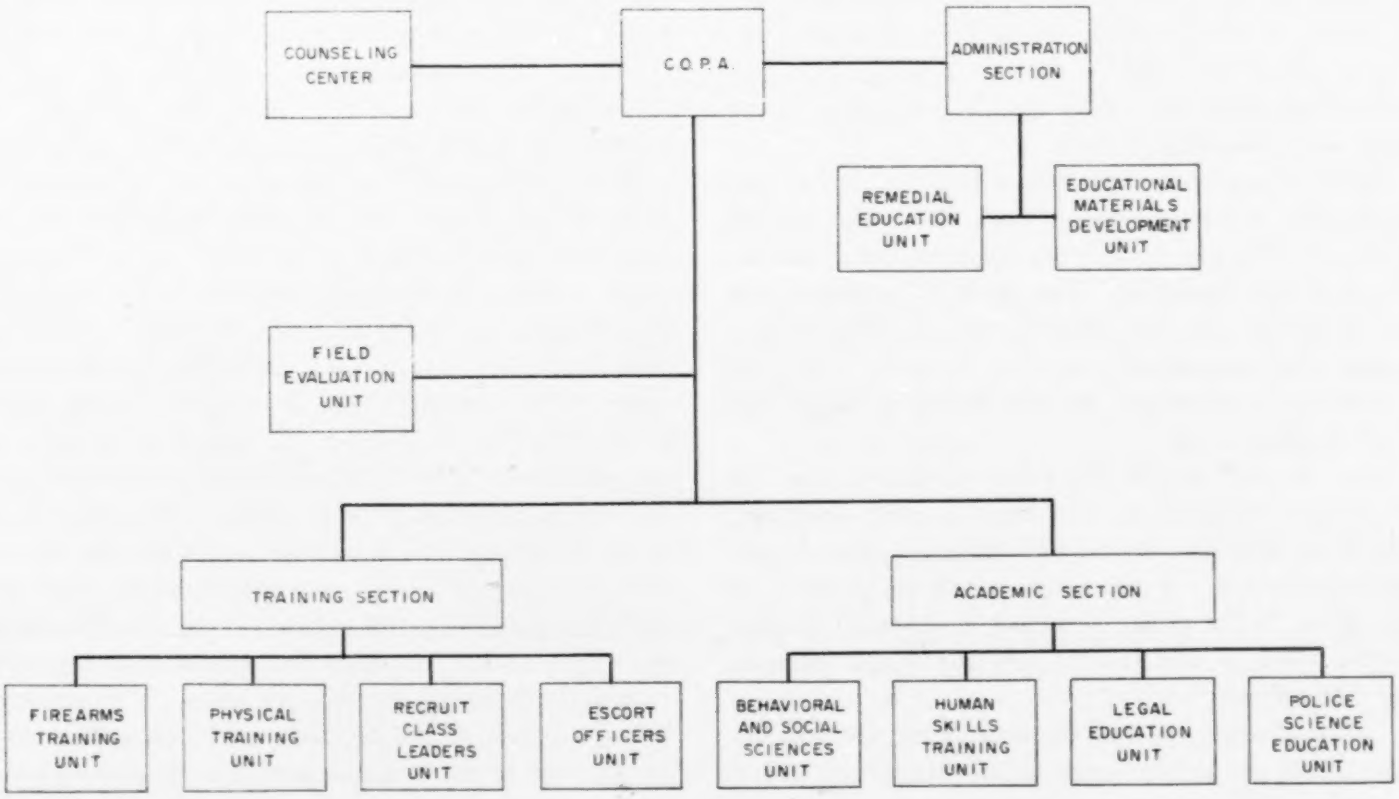
One of the major logistical problems for the training administrator has been a space shortage, which of late has forced the training into a two-platoon system. A relatively small proportion of the space in the police academy is devoted to classrooms, part of the fourth and the major part of the fifth floors.

Unfortunately, as can be seen from the description above, the Police Academy building now houses a number of units which are not part of the academy and not related to training. Over the years the academy itself has had less and less space in which to work. It is the recommendation of the staff of this project that most units not concerned with the basic functions of the academy should vacate the academy building. It is important to recognize that the many recommendations of this project, when implemented, will require substantial additional space for support services, instructors' facilities, laboratories, study areas, and other specialized space uses. It may no longer be possible to give the academy the use of rooms 430 through 434, presently occupied by the electronic data processing division because of the extensive computer installation there. But rooms 750, 752 through 757, 759 through 763, being used by the personnel screening unit, and the balance of the seventh floor, now used by the medical unit, impinge on the training facilities. The use of office space and classrooms by the John Jay College will hopefully be terminated in the near future when that college obtains space for which arrangements are now being made. That space will solve only the short term needs of the academy, however. Despite the pressure for office space felt by all units of the department, it is recommended that the original commitment made to the academy when its present building was designed should be honored. Relocation of the units mentioned above will substantially alleviate the critical pressure on the education and training facilities.

The chart on page 62 shows the proposed organization of the police academy which would result from the implementation of the recommendations of this report. In this structure COPA would have five units reporting directly to him. One of these is the administrative section, which, in turn, would have reporting to it the remediai education unit and the educational materials development unit. The remedial education unit, as discussed in section 11.2 of chapter 11, would essentially be an administrative unit which would control recruits for whom remedial education has been determined to be necessary and would insure that this education is received. (It is contemplated that the remedial work would actually take place outside of the academy in existent educational agencies especially designed for this purpose. The agencies are not a part of the department.) In section 11.3 of chapter 11 the functions of the educational materials development unit are outlined. Again, this unit would be essentially administrative, controlling and directing development work, such as procedures made possible through outside funding. Reporting to the educational materials development unit would be the reproductions unit, library, and the audiovisual aids service of the academy. Reporting directly to COPA would be the new professional counseling support service, discussed in section 11.1 of chapter 11. The field evaluation unit, discussed in section 12.5 of chapter 12, would perform an essential function for COPA by advising him on a continuing basis of the effectiveness of training in relationship to field experience. In addition, the academic section and the training section would report directly to COPA.

The academic section would include four units, the behavioral and social sciences unit, human skills training unit, legal education unit and the police science education unit. These units would be responsible for the respective components of the curriculum and, in effect, would form "academic departments" for the police and civilian instructors assigned to the academy, with the exception of those in firearms and physical training. In the first three units within the academic section there would be civilian as well as police instructors. The behavioral and social sciences unit would include the personnel assigned to teach courses in criminology, social psychology, and aspects of the urban environment. The human skills training unit would include instructional staff working in the areas of ethics, human behavior, and dramatizations. This latter unit would interact closely with the staff of the counseling center. The legal education unit would include the civilian and police personnel teaching the law units, and the police science education unit would include the police instructors assigned to teach course units in the police science area. Included in the training section would be four units: firearms training unit, physical training unit, recruit class leaders unit and escort officers unit. The first two of these units have self-evident functions. The recruit class leaders unit would include all those instructors in the academy functioning as group leaders in the recruit program. The escort officers unit would include members of the department assigned to function as escort officers. The concepts of this unit and the escort function are described in section 5.3 of chapter 5 and represent a major innovative recommendation of this report.

PROPOSED ORGANIZATION-POLICE ACADEMY


COUNSELING CENTER
C.O.P.A.
ADMINISTRATION SECTION
REMEDIAL EDUCATION UNIT
EDUCATIONAL MATERIALS DEVELOPMENT UNIT
FIELD EVALUATION UNIT
TRAINING SECTION
ACADEMIC SECTION
FIREARMS TRAINING UNIT
PHYSICAL TRAINING UNIT
RECRUIT CLASS LEADERS UNIT
ESCORT OFFICERS UNIT
BEHAVIORAL AND SOCIAL SCIENCES UNIT
HUMAN SKILLS TRAINING UNIT
LEGAL EDUCATION UNIT
POLICE SCIENCE EDUCATION UNIT

3.3 Goals and Research Procedures of the Present Study

The research staff of this project believes the goals of the project to require a comprehensive review of all training and educational programs within the department, in terms of their adequacy in meeting the requirements of the police service in the present New York City community. As a consequence, attainment of the goals required the structuring of a new curriculum for recruit training to make possible the introduction of genuinely relevant educational experiences. The structuring of curriculum, in turn, indicated the need for an instructional staff mix through the introduction of civilian instructors to the academy teaching staff. The recommendations which are presented in this report should be viewed as an interrelated matrix. In large measure, the implementation of the recommendations requires the acceptance of a new philosophy of education and training within the department. As a byproduct of the new philosophy not only will civilian expertise be introduced into the teaching of recruits, but provision is made for a civilian director of education and training who will be responsible for the establishment and maintenance of an educational orientation throughout the department. In this way, without eliminating the essential role of COPA, the desirable aspects of civilian specialization, competence, and attitudes will be introduced.

Research Procedures

This project has drawn upon the resources of knowledge and expertise within the department. The "in-house" nature of this project has been fundamental in permitting a realistic and effective review of present practices, recommended changes, and individual reactions.

A variety of research procedures were used in this study. One of the first steps was to publish a departmental notice (T.O.P. 245, 1968), the contents of which appear on pages 64 and 65, describing the project and its objectives to all members of the department, and inviting them to make criticisms of current training programs, policies, and methods, and to submit suggestions for improvement. The 529 responses contained 1,015 suggestions which were grouped into categories to facilitate study. The breakdown was:

Basic or recruit training	343
Inservice or refresher training	388
Specialized or technical training	284

Letters were sent out to every American police department in cities over 50,000 population, to a 10 percent sampling of departments in cities from 25,000 to 50,000 population, and to a 5 percent sampling of police agencies in cities under 25,000. A total of 360 letters were mailed asking for copies of curriculums, syllabuses, and training materials. Responses were received from approximately 120 agencies. A firearms training survey of 72 police agencies resulted in 48 replies.

Lesson plans, curriculums, and various training materials of the New York City Police Academy were obtained, along with quantities of data concerning the history and growth of police training in this city. Current statistical data on recruit input, instructors, noninstructional staff, testing, and other matters were gathered. Organization charts of the department and of the academy were reviewed. A number of prior training studies, both of this department and others, were examined in detail.

Incident reports and cumulative printouts of the 20th precinct (an experimental "laboratory" precinct) were studied in the effort to relate performance to training. The literature in the field of police training was surveyed in depth. "Public opinion" and "trait image" surveys of recruits, instructors, and experienced officers were administered. Staff members of the project sat in and participated with several recruit and inservice classes engaged in academic, physical, and firearms training to observe techniques and to get the "feel" of the various programs. A job analysis was undertaken to learn the various tasks performed by policemen and to identify training needs. Many recruits, instructors, academy staff, and experienced officers were personally interviewed by staff members.

A training advisory panel was organized by the project staff early in the study. The panel consisted of nine members of the force, representing all ranks up to captain, and a cross section of police assignments and ethnic groups (one patrolman, one policewoman, one detective sergeant, one patrol sergeant, one headquarters sergeant, one patrol lieutenant, one headquarters lieutenant, one lieutenant instructor, and one Police Academy captain).

Meeting on five occasions with the full research staff of the project, a variety of matters were considered, among them the role of the policeman, recruitment, selection, motivation, training needs, standards, instructor qualifications and selection, curriculum content, identification of problem areas, centralized versus decentralized training, an escort training program, civilian versus uniformed instructors, discipline as a function of training, training techniques, and policies.

Meetings were held with training directors of private corporations, such as the New York Telephone Co., IBM Corp., Macy's Department Store, and J. C. Penney Co. in order to learn what the private sector was doing in employee training programs, particularly in teaching techniques. These inquiries led to studies of programed instruction (PI), computer-assisted instruction (CAI), gaming techniques, film loops and strips; and additional meetings were arranged with manufacturers of these devices. Conferences were arranged with military training officials in the provost marshal general's office, and with training directors in Federal agencies, such as the Agency for International Development (International Police Academy), the Treasury Department (Law Enforcement Training School) and the FBI (National Academy, Washington, D.C., and New York).

Meetings, conferences, and interviews were also held with such agencies or representatives as the New York State Police, the Quaker Project on Community Conflict, executives of the International Association of Chiefs of Police, the Guardians Association of the New York City Police Department, Glenn Carpenter of Sterling Institute, the VERA Institute of Justice, faculty members of the John Jay College of Criminal Justice of The City University of New York, the advisory committee of the New Haven Police Department project (LEAA No. 171), and other agencies doing research or conducting experimental programs in the field of police training.

Staff members made visits to several police agencies in the metropolitan area and to such cities as Chicago, Baltimore, Washington, D.C., Philadelphia, Boston, St. Louis, Cleveland, San Juan, New Orleans, San Francisco, Oakland, Berkeley, and Los Angeles to interview police chiefs, training officers and staff, and to observe firsthand the techniques and innovations being used. In addition, a trip was made to London and Rome police departments for the same purpose.

Specific tasks in problem areas were assigned to 12 paid consultants, all experts in their fields. A list of the consultants and abstracts of their reports is found in appendix E of this report. Experts from within the department rendered invaluable assistance to the project staff, but were not remunerated as consultants.

POLICE DEPARTMENT, CITY OF NEW YORK,

May 31, 1968.

To all commands:

Subject: Training and educational study project under grant from the Office of Law Enforcement Assistance.

1. This department has received a grant in the amount of $77,485 from the Office of Law Enforcement Assistance of the Department of Justice, which will permit us to undertake a comprehensive study of our training and educational programs. The police commissioner has designated the chief of personnel as project director.

2. The objective of the project study will be to determine the adequacy of current curriculums to meet the service requirements of a modern-day, urban police agency.

3. Every resource in the field of police training and education will be probed in the course of the project study, including the vast knowledge and experience possessed by members of this department. It is important that the broadest possible participation by members of the department be encouraged, since it is recognized that they will contribute the most objective criticism of our programs through their experience with them.

4. Commanding officers are therefore requested to bring the intent and purpose of the study to the attention of all members of their commands and to solicit suggestions for improvement of departmental training and education in all its aspects, including, but not limited to, the recruit, inservice and other command levels. Roll call announcements, unit training sessions and the posting of this TOP on all department bulletin boards, among other means, will be utilized to publicize the study project.

5. Commanding officers shall request all members of their commands to submit reports in writing, setting forth their comments and suggestions.

Reports submitted by individual members shall be forwarded by commanding officers as indicated in paragraph 7.

6. In addition, each commanding officer and supervisory head, after consulting with his staff, shall submit a report giving his suggestions for the improvement of departmental training and education.

7. The reports of subordinate commands (if there is nothing to offer, a negative report will be made) along with any individual reports submitted, shall be forwarded to the next higher command. Reports will be processed through channels to the following units who shall forward them together with their own report by fly-sheet to the chief of personnel, room 115, police headquarters, to arrive no later than June 17, 1968:

Each deputy commissioner's office
Each patrol borough command
Each detective borough command
Planning division
Operations division
Technical services bureau
Chief inspector's investigating unit
Personnel investigation section
Personnel services division
Police Academy
Narcotics bureau
Burglary-larceny bureau
Chief of detectives for C.I.B., B.S.S., M.P.U., D.A.N.Y., Riv. Sq.
Chief of patrol for S.E.D., T.P.F., & Y.A.D.

Reports will not be consolidated. Commanding officers and supervisory heads will be responsible that a report is forwarded for each subordinate unit.

8. Reports received from individual members shall be personally acknowledged and in outstanding cases note will be made in the personal folder of the member concerned. In exceptional cases, and where appropriate, individual members will be considered for an award of excellent police duty.

By direction of the police commissioner.

SANFORD D. GARELIK,
Chief Inspector.

Distribution: To all commands.
Inactive date: June 18, 1968.

Chapter 4. How And What Recruits Are Now Taught

4.1 Present Educational Practices in the Police Academy

In meeting its commitments to prepare recruits for their duties as patrolmen and in conducting in-service training courses, the Police Academy has relied upon a corps of police officer instructors, usually from the ranks of sergeant and lieutenant. (Patrolmen instructors are used for the most part in the firearms and physical training programs.) The members of the teaching staff apply for assignment to the academy and are accepted on the basis of rather informal selection procedures. When assigned to the academy, instructors, particularly those assigned to the recruit school, are required to carry a workload which is excessive when compared to the workload of instructors in other institutions.

The basic education procedure currently used in the recruit school is a standardized lesson plan. Under this system, introduced in 1954, a standard lesson plan is mimeographed for each hour of academic instruction. When an instructor is scheduled to teach a particular subject, he takes the appropriate lesson plan from a central file. The recruit is also provided with mimeographed material covering the many individual topics in the recruit curriculum. The lesson plans were developed by recruit instructors following a format used by the U.S. Army in its training programs. The instructors carry out the necessary research for the development and updating of all lesson plans, as well as the preparation of a number of test questions. With the exception of a copy of the rules and procedures of the department and a few items of outside reading in connection with the discussion of human relations and race relations, the recruit receives no materials other than the mimeographed lesson materials. No textbook materials are used or referred to by way of outside readings.

It is essential in any evaluation of current educational practices at the Academy to recognize that each police instructor teaches all of the academic curriculum to his class. The usual routine consists of 3 hours per day of physical training for the recruit and 4 hours per day of academic training. This means that the police academic instructor must prepare four 40-minute lectures and be ready to answer questions in the remaining 10 minutes of the 50-minute class period. With few exceptions the predominant instructional method is the lecture. The educational effect of this system is not satisfactory. There are grave doubts that the lecture method is appropriate for the kind of student population found in the recruit classes. The majority of persons in the age bracket of the younger recruits who might have benefited from lectures have probably gone on to college and have not chosen to enter the department. Most of the recruits are young men who are action oriented; they need to do rather than to listen. Even under the best of circumstances, effective lecturing is a skill possessed by few teachers. As one of the consultants to this project has phrased it: "In the hands of the inept or the dull, lectures can be one of the most stultifying experiences known to man."

Members of the reseach staff of this project have observed a number of instructors teaching a variety of subjects to recruits. The range of competence was from excellent to mediocre, from exciting lectures to mere reading of the lesson plan with an inability to successfully field recruits' questions. Almost inevitably existing educational practices produce this kind of result. The theory that any superior officer is able to effectively teach all subjects in the recruit curriculum is a naive point of view. In fact, the theory is unfair to the instructor and is one of the factors contributing to the decline of the attractiveness of an assignment as an academy instructor. The practice of placing an instructor in charge of a class (32 to 35 recruits prior to 1967 and 40 in a class since then), and having him work with that class through the entire academic curriculum has been justified on the ground that in this fashion the instructor gets to know his students. The factor, however, does not offset the educational disadvantages.

A number of outside observers who have had the opportunity to review educational practices at the academy have focused their criticism upon the way in which the instructional staff is utilized and, more basically, upon the unrealistic demands placed on the individual instructor. It is easy to understand the difficulties faced by conscientious members of the teaching staff who try to instruct under conditions in which recruit training is occasionally interrupted and instructors are sent out to field assignments. Prior to 1960, instructors taught a maximum of 12 hours a week and were scheduled for one free day for research and lesson preparation. In 1960, the free day was eliminated. The number of hours the instructor was required to teach was increased to four a day in 1964. From 1960 to the present time, therefore, a recruit instructor's basic hours of teaching were increased from 12 hours a week to 20 hours. During this period the participation by instructors in curriculum development, testing, and research dropped to a minimum. These deteriorations of working conditions were caused by factors beyond the control of COPA, which is one reason why higher rank is recommended for COPA in this report. Other sections of this report have emphasized the crucial need of a commitment to uninterrupted training and also to a stabilization of the input of recruits to the academy. The personal devotion and dedication of the staff of the academy in the face of the obstacles to the training process have been commendable. In net, the department has received better trained recruits than it had a right to expect. However, the time is overdue for a correction and modernization of these practices. The present COPA has moved to establish a curriculum committee which is now actively involving members of the teaching staff. It is believed that, with the implementation of the recommendations of this report, the academy will be the outstanding training and educational institution among law enforcement agencies in the United States.

4.2 The Current Curriculum

The current academic program in the recruit training curriculum is divided into five divisions and provides a total of 312 hours of academic instruction. There are, in addition, 192 hours of physical instruction and 56 hours in firearms, making a total recruit program of 560 hours. The following is an outline of the present curriculum with a statement of the objectives of each component, as incorporated in the syllabus prepared by the academy.

PRESENT CURRICULUM—POLICE ACADEMY RECRUIT TRAINING PROGRAM, NEW YORK CITY POLICE DEPARTMENT

DIVISION I

Introduction to a police career

This division is designed to indoctrinate the recruit in the mission, functions and organization of the police department, and with the ethics and standards with which he will be expected to comply while a member of the department.

	Hours
Orientation and indoctrination	9
Ethics and conduct	8
Equipment and department property	3
Department organization	3
Reports, records, orders	3
Total	26

DIVISION II

Police procedures and techniques

In this division of the recruit syllabus the procedures to be followed in carrying out specific duties are presented to the student. The methods and techniques employed are explained and are coupled with practical exercises and demonstrations.

	Hours
Aided and accident cases	7
Patrol procedures	18
Traffic procedures	14
Investigations	3
Summons procedures	8
Arrest procedures	12
Prisoners	5
Police emergencies, disasters, and civil defense	5
Total	72

DIVISION III

The police, the government, the law

This division is organized so that the recruit will be acquainted with the development of legal process in society. Included in this division will be found a discussion of the civil and criminal courts of the city, State, and Federal Government in which a policeman is likely to be required to appear. The largest number of hours in the division are devoted to presenting the elements of criminal and municipal laws with which the patrolman should be familiar. Evidence is also discussed. Description of the various types of evidence is included as well as specific steps taken to identify, handle, mark, and safeguard the several types.

	Hours
City government and cooperation with governmental agencies	2
The courts	3
Criminal law and modus operandi	32
Municipal law	12
Evidence	2
Public morals	15
Total	66

DIVISION IV

The police role in human and race relations

It is essential that police recruit training include subject matter which will provide a better understanding of human behavior and which will develop proper attitudes on the part of police and which are consistent with the human relations concepts of professional police performance. Towards that end, this division is specifically oriented towards developing a professional police officer who can adopt proper attitudes toward himself and the public he serves. In order to increase the scope of understanding of police-human relations concepts, various instructional techniques are utilized. Through the media of lectures, discussions, films, workshops, required readings, and research projects, the recruit is exposed to those ideas, opinions, points of view, and conclusions which are basic to the formulation and adoption of desirable attitudes.

	Hours
Psychology and the police	6
Human relations	5
Race relations and civil rights	5
Crime and delinquency causation	17
The Constitution and due process	3
Assemblages	3
Police ethics (chaplains)	5
Workshops on human relations	8
Critique term paper	1
Guest lecturers	5
History of Negro in America	4
Puerto Rican culture and customs	3
Total	65

DIVISION V

Demonstrations and exercises

Five objectives exist in the presentation of this division. The first of these is to augment the lecture and home study exercises by actual demonstrations of techniques and methods and by field trips to appropriate courts, the morgue, and police headquarters. The second objective is to afford the student an opportunity to apply the knowledge imparted to him by the performance of practical exercises. The third intent of the division is to set aside time for adequate review of important principles. The fourth objective is to test the student's knowledge during, and at the end of the school term. The fifth aim is to make certain that all recruits are indoctrinated in the facets of careful driving so as to minimize personal injury and property damage

	Hours
Demonstrations	17
Field trips and duty	23
Practical exercises	17
Review and testing	17
Driver training	9
Total	83
Total academic	312

FIREARMS PROGRAM

Probationary patrolmen receive 56 hours of firearms training, during which time each member fires a minimum of 340 rounds of ammunition with his .38 calibre special service revolver. Firearms training is held at an outdoor range, with firing at the 7-, 15-, and 25-yard target distances, or, during the winter months, at an indoor range at a distance of 20 yards. The New York City Police Department silhouette and bull's eye targets are used. Probationary policewomen, with minor exceptions, receive the same training. Training sessions are divided into range classroom instruction in firearms-related subjects, and range firing. A full presentation of the firearms programs is found in chapter 9.

	Hours
Firearms training	56

PHYSICAL TRAINING PROGRAM

The physical training program is designed to develop a high degree of strength, endurance, agility, coordination, and skill in the police recruit. The development and maintenance of a sound physique, supplementing the academic and firearms training, will produce a highly efficient, well-trained policeman, capable of performing a wide variety of duties and meeting emergency situations. The physical program consists of training in such subjects as infantry drill, calisthenics, baton drill, search and frisk, boxing, unarmed defense, riot control, and first aid. Sessions are held 4 days each week for a period of 3 hours each. A total of 192 hours of training is scheduled over the 4-month period.

	Hours
Physical training	192
Total, recruit training curriculum	560

4.3 The Present Teaching Staff

The reasons for the recent low morale of instructors assigned to the academy are easy to document. They arise from the fact that assignment as an instructor does not presently have advantages over assignment to a field command. In fact, assignment to the academy has disadvantages. The workload, as indicated in section 4.1, is excessive for a teaching assignment; classes of 40 recruits are too large. As previously described in chapter 2, section 2.4, there remains the continuing possibility of assignment to the field for a day, a week, or longer period between recruit classes or as crises occur;

and, there is a lack of full involvement of instructors in educational development and planning at the academy. Despite these drawbacks, there are many members of the department who like to teach, are competent, and have a commitment to training. But the superior officer concerned with the practical aspects of his own career in the department often believes that his interests will be better served through a field assignment. As a result, unfortunately, conviction is lacking within the department that assignment to the Police Academy as an instructor carries any prestige. This outlook produces the prevalent low morale among instructors. The several recommendations in this report should have the effect of correcting the present weakness and making the assignment to the Police Academy one to be sought after and retained only by those exhibiting excellence.

Insofar as the recruit training curriculum can be made increasingly relevant to field experience, the prestige of teaching the curriculum will be enhanced. There can be no more devastating factor, from the point of view of academy instructors, than the attitude referred to by Arthur Niederhoffer, himself a former academy instructor, when he observed "Recruits tend to see their training at the Academy as being irrelevant to their actual work." The interaction between the academy and field experience provided in the new curriculum should largely overcome this problem. The curriculum committee recently established by COPA has recommended that "an attempt be made to obtain feedback from the line units relative to the adequacy of recent academy graduates. This would eliminate the 'isolated' state of current recruit training while, at the same time, develop a sense of participation and responsibility on the part of the field commands."

The number of academy personnel assigned to instructional duties varied from a high of 69 in February 1969, to a low of 27 in October of 1969. The number of assigned personnel has historically been based upon a ratio of one instructor for each class, which, as indicated previously, was 32 to 35 recruits but was increased to 40 early in 1967. In addition, an available cadre of one instructor for each six assigned instructors has been maintained in order to cover absences and special instructional requirements. In the physical training program the number of instructors varied from 22 to 10 in 1969, with an average of 16 for the year. In October 1969 the number of physical training instructors will be reduced from 20 to 14 because there will be fewer recruits in training. In the firearms training area, 48 instructors are presently assigned. There were 55 earlier in the year. This number does not vary greatly since the size of the firearms staff does not depend primarily on the number of recruits in training, but upon the inservice training of members of the department in the ranks. The advanced and specialized training section at the academy currently includes 25 instructors. There is some fluctuation in this area depending on the current training programs, but it is not as large as in the recruit area. The manpower development training program uses two instructors and two additional instructors are assigned to the training of police administrative aides. In summary, the total instructional strength at the academy during 1969 consisted of about 140 instructors in all of the programs. This is a large enough group to permit effective implementation of new recruitment and training policies.

Police instructors, like teachers in any subject matter area, should possess several qualities: Subject matter competence, mastery of teaching techniques, creativeness and resourcefulness, the habit of evaluation, a desire to teach and the ability to develop good personal relationships with students and fellow staff. Those exercising supervision over instructional staff should be able to diagnose effectiveness, and evaluate experience and current weaknesses. The present practices at the academy do not assure that the best possible teaching talent is identified in the ranks of the department and assigned to the academy. Some instructors regard an academy assignment as one of low prestige, which militates against effective selection. Rigidities in terms of rank introduce unnecessary limitations in the selection process. There is, for example, no real reason why police instructors in charge of recruit classes need to be sergeants and lieutenants. Experienced and qualified patrolmen could function just as well. Under special circumstances officers of higher rank should also be assigned as instructors. An infusion of higher ranks on a rotating basis would do much to add to the effectiveness of the police instructional staff. In general, an effective recruiting program for instructors followed by successful completion of a methods of instruction course should lead to reasonably permanent assignment to the academy.

In order to bring the most effective skills to bear in a methods of instruction course it is recommended that an outside agency provide this training. For example, the 3-week course which the Traffic Institute of Northwestern University offers for police instructors is generally recognized as excellent. Groups of newly appointed instructors could be scheduled to take this type of course taught under contract by the professional staff from the traffic institute. Such courses would be taught at the academy. Perhaps two cycles of the 3-week course during the year could be scheduled in such a way as to expose all new instructors to this type of training. A 3- or 4-year tour of duty for academy instructors, analogous to procedures followed in the Armed Forces, would make sense and provide a sufficiently long-term involvement to motivate the instructor without, however, removing him permanently from the mainspring of field experience within the department.

The present high rate of turnover has meant that many police instructors have had only a few months at the academy. Thus, of a group of 12 instructors assigned to recruit training in January 1969, six had instructional experience of less than 1 year. The average instructional experience of all personnel assigned to instructional duties is estimated to be under 3 years with a much lower figure for instructors assigned to recruit training. The total job experience in the department, however, varied from a low of 10 years with this group to a high of 22 years. In addition, of the 55 instructors at the academy reflecting this weak experience factor in 1968, only 19 held bachelor's degrees. Of the 19, only nine had taken work beyond the bachelor's degree and three had attained the master's degree. Of the 36 who had less than the bachelor's degree 12 had an associate degree and 24 had some college credits.

Chapter 5. New Responses to New Requirements

5.1 A New Curriculum for Recruits

The review of existing educational practices at the police academy has revealed two major practices which reduce the effectiveness of recruit training and, to a degree, make is impossible to develop an effective program. The first practice is the erratic input of recruits to the academy. The statistical data in the previous chapters has documented the "feast or famine" experience in the academy. It is not possible to maintain an effective teaching staff nor to implement an educationally sound curriculum when the number of students to be taught varies as widely as has been the case in successive recruit classes. This report makes a basic policy recommendation that there be stability in the recruit training cycle. Obviously, this will require a commitment by the budgetary authorities of the city of New York to provide funds on a reasonably stable basis for new recruits. The second practice concerns the traditional policy whereby a recruit instructor teaches essentially the entire academic curriculum to his class. As a result, recruits are not exposed to a number of instructors and diversified expertise is not brought into the classroom. A consequence of both the erratic input of students and the traditional instructional staff policies is that civilian instructors have not been introduced into the recruit training process except as occasional guest lecturers. The staff of this research project agrees with the conclusions of the President's Commission and the Task Force on Police that such a police-civilian instructional staff mix is desirable. The details of this concept will be presented in the next section. With a reasonable stability in the appointing process for new recruit classes established and, as a consequence, a real possibility of using civilian instructors, the academy's administrators could develop a new curriculum to provide a total educational experience for the recruits. A major portion of the resources of this project has been devoted to the structuring of a new curriculum because of the conviction of the research staff that the first educational and training experience will have a critical effect on the entire career of the police officer. The educational rationale behind the several phases of the new curriculum are examined in section 6.2 of chapter 6. The proposed curriculum is divided into five phases and runs for 18 weeks, 40 hours a week (8-hour instructional days), for a total of 720 hours. A summary of the new recruit curriculum follows:

SUMMARY OF THE NEW RECRUIT CURRICULUM

Phases of the recommended curriculum—Administrative processes (10 hours).

Phase I (4 weeks, 150 hours).—During phase I the recruit will continue to wear civilian clothing and will not be issued firearms. The educational objective is to prepare the recruits for the achievement of professionalization in phase II.

Phase II (8 weeks, 320 hours).—The basic educational objective of phase II is intensive professional training. Firearms will be issued in either the fourth, fifth, or sixth week, and a week of field duty will take place in either the fifth, sixth, or seventh week. The recruit will return for continued professional training after his basic patrol experience under supervision of his group leader and escort officer.

Phase III (2 weeks, 80 hours).—Intensive field experience, again under supervision, intended to expose the recruit to the duties of a probationary patrolman. The recruit will have field duty with specialized units of the department during this period.

Phase IV (3 weeks, 120 hours).—This final academy phase involves an innovative concept in police training. Essentially, its purpose is to evaluate, on an individual and group basis, the field duty of the recruit as experienced by the recruit himself and observed and evaluated by the group leader and the escort officer. Opportunity is provided in this phase for a variety of decisionmaking drills.

Phase V (1 week, 40 hours).—This phase involves orientation to the recruit's permanent command. Again, the escort officer plays a key role under the supervision of the group leader.

The individual course units within the new recruit curriculum are as follows:

Course Units in the New Recruit Curriculum

(Administrative Processing, 10 hours)

PHASE I—EDUCATIONAL ORIENTATION AND PREPARATION (4 WEEKS, 150 HOURS)

	Hours
Course Unit A. Testing of the new recruit: In terms of speech, reading, written English, quantitative skills, critical thinking and other relevant measures of present level of achievement and possible remedial needs	5
Course Unit B. Individual and interpersonal human skills development:	
Moral principles governing human behavior	4
The urban environment, historical, social, political aspects of democracy, with specific reference to New York City	20
Orientation to the behavioral and social sciences as applied to law enforcement—Part I:	
Introduction to criminology, nature of crime and criminals	15
Principles of social psychology	20
Course Unit C. Introduction to the criminal justice process—a law unit	20
Course Unit D. Selected aspects of the New York penal law—a law unit	20
Course Unit E. New York City Police Department, functions and structure—a police science unit	10
Course Unit F. Physical conditioning—calisthenics, boxing, first aid (3 hours a day on alternate days for 3 days a week)	36

PHASE II—PROFESSIONALIZATION (8 WEEKS, 320 HOURS)

Course Unit A. Police Science unit:	
Part 1: Techniques in patrol, traffic, summons, and arrest procedures, emergency and related areas of police practice; departmental rules and procedures	50
Part 2: This unit is presented after the completion of course unit G—basic patrol experience; reviews and amplifies topics considered in part 1	10
Course Unit B. Orientation to the behavioral and social sciences as applied to law enforcement—Part II:	
Applied criminology, crime and criminals as encountered "on the street"	10
Applied social psychology, with attention to ethical relationships and intergroup tensions	10
Course Unit C. Criminalistics unit, crime scene operations and practical criminalistics	18
Course Unit D. Law units: Including "mini-courses" in Constitutional law, civil rights law, traffic law, and other relevant phases of law, together with moot court and legal seminars	70
Course Unit E. Physical training and police techniques: Calisthenics, infantry drill, unarmed defense, search and frisk, baton drill, and riot control (3 hours a day for 4 days a week—6 weeks)	72
Course Unit F. Firearms training: Recruits to be uniformed and issued firearms after successful completion of firearms training in the fourth, fifth or sixth week of their training	40
Course Unit G. Basic Patrol Experience: Recruits to perform field duty in the week immediately following completion of firearms training. (This field duty unit to be conducted in groups of approximately 175 recruits assigned to selected precincts.) This unit will be completed in the fifth, sixth, or seventh week of the recruit's training	40

PHASE III—FIELD EXPERIENCE (2 WEEKS, 80 HOURS)

Recruits will perform the duties of a probationary patrolman in patrol precincts and also in selected specialized units under supervision of the group leaders and escort officers	80

PHASE IV—TRAINING EVALUATION AND DECISIONMAKING DRILLS (3 WEEKS, 120 HOURS)

Course Unit A. The moral imperative, an ethics unit	6
Course Unit B. Human behavior and civil rights: A sociopsychological view of social forces impacting upon law enforcement in the New York City community	30
Course Unit C. Individualized interaction with field situations portrayed through dramatizations: The individual recruit will be led through decisionmaking situations and drilled in appropriate discretionary decisions	52
Course Unit D. Free discussion seminar and self-critique of training and field experience: This course will be led by recruits on a rotating basis and will provide a self-evaluation of curriculum, instruction, and field experience	6
Course Unit E. Review of combat firing (1 day on the firing range)	8
Course Unit F. Review of unarmed defense techniques: Reinforcement of established physical fitness habits (3 hours a day for 2 days a week)	18

PHASE V—ORIENTATION TO PERMANENT COMMAND (1 WEEK, 40 HOURS)

This phase will involve recruits after completion of training and will be the responsibility of the group leaders and the escort officers assigned to the precinct where the recruit will assume his normal assignment. During this week the recruit will learn the geography of the precinct, policies peculiar to the locale, sociology of the population, and local crime patterns	40

The new curriculum requires 18 weeks or 720 hours.

5.2 Police-Civilian Instructional Staff Mix

On the assumption that the budgetary authorities of the city will assure a distribution of funds throughout the year for the appointment of new patrolmen such that reasonable stability in timing and size of the classes can be assured, then it will become possible to introduce civilian instructors into the police academy staff. Clearly, competent civilian personnel will not be attracted to a teaching situation which compares unfavorably in terms of professional status, salary, and working conditions to those offered by academic institutions. To be specific, the civilian instructional staff recruited for the academy should meet the qualifications that are currently applied for appointments to the teaching staff of the City University of New York. There is reason to hope that the implementation of the several interrelated recommendations made by this project in respect to the educational and training activities in the department will make service with the Department as a civilian instructor attractive, challenging and professionally rewarding. The "standard" teaching load of members of the City University of New York faculty varies between 9 and 12 hours a week of actual classroom instruction for a period which, during the calendar year, consists of approximately 30 weeks organized into two semesters of 15 weeks each. Of course, faculty responsibilities do not end in the classroom; they embrace service on faculty committees, consultations with students, professional research, publication of books and papers, activity in professional societies, and service to the community. It is hard to measure the total number of hours a week which this complex of services requires, but it is sufficient to say that it exceeds the average workweek in the police service. However, this is a complex of services rendered by the faculty member within a flexible schedule rather than a rigid work timetable. In fact, the nature of academic service requires a "self-starting" type of individual. Competent instructors will, for example, prepare course outlines for their courses rather than rely on lesson plans. Under the assumption that similar standards would apply to the civilian instructional staff at the academy, this means that the sequence of classes must be such that the instructor will be able to work for approximately 30 weeks in the year and do so on a reasonably predetermined basis. The question of scheduling is considered in greater detail in the following paragraph.

In order to be competitive, it is assumed that the salary schedule of the city university will apply to the civilian teaching staff of the academy. The current salary schedule for the several academic ranks is as follows:

	Salary range
Professor	$19,620 to $27,900
Associate professor	$15,380 to $22,620
Assistant professor	$12,380 to $18,380
Instructor	$11,005 to $14,855

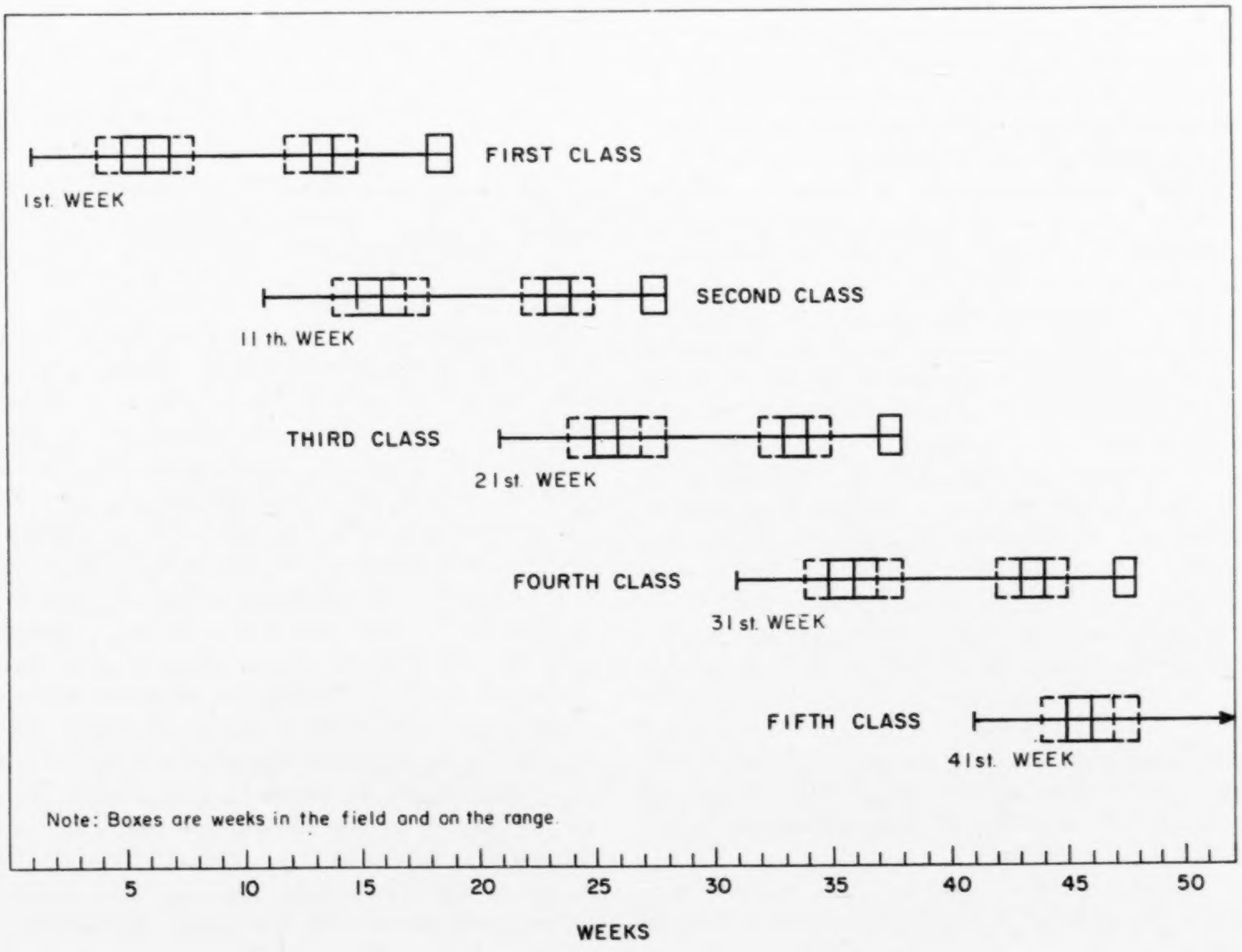
A reasonable total input of recruits to the department during a year is approximately 2,500. The statistical data presented in earlier chapters indicates that at this level the department will be able to maintain itself at an appropriate level of strength. With an annual input of 2,500 recruits, five classes can be scheduled during the calendar year. The chart on page 74 shows the new training cycle for recruits. Each complete curriculum is 18 weeks, of which a total of 5 weeks is spent in the field (1 week on patrol in phase II and 1 week in firearms training, 2 weeks on patrol in phase III and a final field training week in phase V). Of the remaining 13 weeks the bulk of the subjects to be taught by the civilian staff falls within the first 10 weeks. Therefore, classes of new recruits can come into the academy at intervals of 10 weeks as indicated on the chart. The civilian instructors can therefore be scheduled quite easily and have an option, subject to reasonable administrative control, of teaching any three out of five class units of 10 weeks each. This design is analogous to operating a college on a trimester.

Some estimates of the budget support necessary to develop a group of competent civilian instructors may be made on a preliminary basis. It is well to keep in mind that the salary costs for the estimated 2,500 recruits to be processed through the academy is itself almost $25 million per year. At the present time (see sec. 4.3 of ch. 4) approximately 150 members of the department are on the teaching staff of the academy. In other words, the operation is a large scale and costly one. Assume now that the average annual salary of a civilian instructor would be $15,000 and that the average teaching load per week would be 10 hours. On the basis of the proposed organization of the recruit class, there would be about 13 groups of 40 each for instruction by the civilian teaching staff. In phase I the civilian teaching staff would handle 75 hours of the curriculum, teaching the courses: urban environment unit (20 hours), introduction to criminology (15 hours), principles of social psychology (20 hours), and course unit C, introduction to the criminal justice process (20 hours). With 13 groups to be instructed, this plan would amount to approximately 1,000 instructional hours spread over 4 weeks, or 250 instructional hours per week. This schedule would require 25 civilian instructors, of which number approximately five would be instructing in law. The cost of 25 civilian instructors for the entire year would be about $375,000. Since each instructor would teach three out of five classes during the year, the cost for each class would be approximately $125,000 for the civilian teaching component of phase I and the annual cost would be about $625,000 for all civilian instructors for the year. In phase II civilian instructors would handle the units of applied criminology (10 hours), applied social psychology (10 hours) and 20 of the 70 hours in course unit D, the law units. This work load would be spread over approximately 5 weeks, amounting, therefore, to 100 hours of instruction per week. In phase IV civilian instructors would handle approximately one-third of the 30 hours in course unit B on human behavior and civil rights. This would amount to 130 hours of instruction for the 13 class groups and could be handled in 1 week. In addition, the civilian teaching staff would be involved in many aspects of the curriculum beyond the areas in which they have full responsibility.

Each recruit increment of 500 would be organized into 25 groups of 20 each. Each group would

NEW TRAINING CYCLE FOR RECRUITS

(EACH INCREMENT CONSISTS OF 500 RECRUITS)



Note: Boxes are weeks in the field and on the range.

be in charge of a group leader, who would be a sergeant or an experienced patrolman. The group leader role would be a required rotating assignment for every unit training officer in the department. With any one class, 25 group leaders would be required. Since classes overlap and run continuously during the year, about 40 different group leaders would be needed during the year. As under present policies, the group leader would be responsible for the command relationship to the recruits, subject to the authority of the commanding officer of the Police Academy. He would not teach the entire curriculum to the group, but only police science subjects. The group leader would be responsible on a continuing basis, throughout the recruit training cycle, for his group and would join them in the field training phases. Civilian instructors would teach their specialties in units of two groups, that is, with approximately 40 students in each class. Specialties in police science, physical and firearms training would be handled by police officers, without any limitations on the rank of the assigned instructor. The philosophy of this new recruit school organization is to expose the recruit to a maximum of varied instructional talent while at the same time preserving the necessary command control through the group leader. Each day during the recruit curriculum, one recruit would function as student group leader in order to give all recruits experience with the duties of the first echelon of supervision.

5.3 Out of the Classroom and Into the Field, Escort Training

The most critical period in the career of a policeman must be the one immediately following training, when he first assumes his duties as a full-fledged patrolman. Unfortunately, there is a dearth of experimental evidence to support this statement. However, 100 policemen of various ranks were interviewed informally in connection with the present study and 94 selected their first field assignment as the most important of all periods in establishing the direction of their future job performance. The training advisory panel concurred with this opinion. This conclusion seems logical from the learning theory premise which holds that early learning has remarkable durability.

Although early job experience is probably an influential factor in most occupations, it is particularly crucial to the career of a policeman. For one thing, he is set apart from the rest of the community by his uniform. Most policemen would agree that the experience of moving among the public in a new and unfamiliar role can be traumatic. His role is cast by society, but his lines and behavior remain for him to improvise. A consultant to this project has referred to this moment of realization as "reality shock." How long this moment of embarrassed, self-conscious insecurity survives is conjectural and probably varies among individuals. It is not the duration of the discomfort that interests the trainer, but rather the measures available to the recruit to reduce his anxiety and, moreover, the alternatives he selects. Not only is he fully identifiable by his dress, but his equipment—shield, gun, handcuffs, and summons book—labels him a person of latent, unlimited power. He feels this and, to a large extent, the public expects this power to be wielded in appropriate emergencies. Overwhelmed by his new responsibilities, he may seek refuge in concealment, in rendering himself as inconspicuous as possible in some doorway store or other shelter which reduces his public exposure and, hence, his self-conscious sense of inadequacy. Conversely, he may elect to mask his feelings of imperfection under a guise of braggadocio. He may swagger boldly down his beat, assuming the air of a bully and by his very demeanor threatening all who pass him. Between these two extremes lies a vast range of intervening choices of behavior.

Compounding the problem of occupational adjustment is a second type of shock, namely that of "cultural shock." All large American cities include areas populated by ethnic minority groups. This is particularly true of New York, the so-called melting pot of the Nation. Here are found large neighborhoods of Puerto Rican, Negro, Hebraic, and first generation Italian culture, to name a few. Notwithstanding diligent recruiting efforts, the New York City department has been unable to staff these areas with policemen indigenous to the locale and it is doubtful that this would be desirable even if it were feasible. As the analysis of entering personnel indicates, the vast majority of recruits has its origin in the lower-middle and upper-lower classes and the blue collar occupations. There is a reasonable probability that, being catapulted into a new and unfamiliar lower class ethnic culture the reaction of the patrolman may be defensive.

The ethnic areas in New York are, in general lower class slum areas. The kinds of services this public expects of the police may be quite different from those with which he is familiar and he may interpret these demands as impositions. Instead of learning these strange customs, the police neophyte may adopt a contemptuous attitude toward them, particularly since they are often set in a context of misery and squalor, and he may treat the people accordingly. That this reaction does indeed occur is attested by the records of complaints to the civilian review board and to the local communications media. Older patrolmen may encourage the development of this scornful attitude by derisive comments of their own, thus perpetuating a police-public relationship of contempt and hostility.

Another factor adding to the recruit's sense of inadequacy is the gap which occurs between theoretical learning and actual practice. The academy may teach the procedures of the job and may even, using a systems approach, set up terminal objectives and criteria. Confronted with the need to implement the procedure in a field situation, however, academic objectivity is complicated by emotional reactions and the laboratory training of the academy is, thus, confused by anxiety in actual performance. This factor has led many of the policemen interviewed to indicate that "the real learning begins on the street." It is understandable that under stress of emotion the officer may feel that he is learning his job all over again.

There is another "hitch" between academic learning and actual performance, namely, that of procedural "gaps." Gaps are those elements of job performance regarded by the instructor as either too trivial to mention or so generally known that he assumes the student knows them. In either case the recruit is assumed to understand them. On the part of the recruit, the gap is a step in job performance which he erroneously assumes he understands or a new element demanded by a variation from the learned situation. Gaps operate to short circuit job performance; that is, to interrupt the continuity of the various steps required to complete a total job function. Sometimes the blank area is so essential to the completion of a task that it cannot be continued without advice from a superior or some improvisation to bridge the gap. The former case is time-consuming and may be embarrassing; the latter may result in the development of an erroneous pattern of behavior. The "crutch" which the learner improvises may become a part of his permanent repertoire and, without some accidental observation on the part of a superior, may never again be subjected to reevaluation. The existence of these gaps and their subsequent discovery and repair may be one of the causes for belief that "real" learning begins in the field.

The initial uncertainty of the rookie is well known to the seasoned patrolmen in his new command, who often observe, advise and assist the recruit during the first few weeks of his field career. After that he develops a confidence which discourages assistance, and whatever attitudes and behavioral patterns have been developed up to that point are reinforced by repeated performances to a point at which they become his occupational "life style." The fellow officers who lend their help during this critical period are usually determined by the proximity of their beat and their willingness to help. This is indeed unfortunate for the recruit. Proximity and willingness, the two primary determinants of who the recruit's counselor will be, have little relationship to integrity and dedication, the qualities so desirable in the choice of a counselor for the new policeman. Characteristically, the police have defended public revelations of various instances of scandalous behavior with the plea that such aberrations may be attributed to a relatively small proportion of their membership. At least one author, James Q. Wilson, has suggested that perhaps the proportion may not be as minimal as the defenders allege. The truth probably lies somewhere between the two views. The vast majority of policemen are relatively honest, being the normal human combination of saint and sinner. Notwithstanding this rather pedestrian evaluation of police integrity, experience has demonstrated that there are certain policemen who distinguish themselves repeatedly by outstanding arrests, rescues, extraordinary public services and acts evincing the exercise of above average intelligence. Some have demonstrated a dedication to their profession by pursuing advanced educational programs designed to improve their capacity as police officers. The important task of training the recruit should be assigned to men who have demonstrated their ability, dedication, and integrity.

One traditional method of training recruits has been to send them into the field in the company of an experienced patrolman. In many cases, the escort has been an unwilling victim of his beat location and mode of patrol. Usually he has been a foot patrolman. His reluctance frequently arose from the disruption to his habitual occupational format caused by the presence of a second party, an observing neophyte whose idealism may be shocked by some of the veteran's practices. It was not unusual to hear tales of a recruit's being shunted into a movie house for the greater part of the tour of duty, while his assigned escort pursued his own pattern. Many present day veterans who were trained by this system will attest to the authenticity of these remarks.

To summarize, then, the newly assigned recruit is an insecure person. His new uniform, with its significance for the role he is to play, is an uncomfortable appendage, distinguishing him from his familiar role, that of the citizen. He adopts a variety of adaptive behavior patterns, many of which do not exemplify ideal police performance. This problem may be complicated by an assignment to an unfamiliar cultural area which may lead to further inappropriate adaptive techniques. His job performance is handicapped by emotionally charged situations which disrupt his academically learned procedures. Shortcomings in the latter emerge in the form of "gaps" in the continuity of procedural steps. The entire training process is climaxed by the guidance of a veteran officer either randomly assigned or, if unassigned, informally selected by the proximity of his post and his willingness to help.

Possible Solutions

One method of overcoming some of the field experience shortcomings enumerated might consist of setting up a model precinct staffed solely by recruits and commanded by idealistic superior officers. Such an arrangement would avoid the contaminating influence of the cynical veteran. It might also permit a continued training process subsequent to academy graduation because the superiors could be selected with a special consideration for their teaching ability. This plan, in effect, would set up a laboratory situation and has been proposed in New York City on numerous occasions over the past 15 years. The model precinct idea has had experimental exposure in some American cities. One notable example was conducted in St. Louis, Mo. The experiment had to be discontinued because of complaints by concerned citizens about the possible inadequacy of a police service in the hands of relatively inexperienced neophytes.

The rationale of the model precinct plan has another major shortcoming. It presupposes that a large proportion of the veterans have a corrupting influence upon young, idealistic recruits and that the proportion which is not corrupt is indistinguishable from the main body and impossible to screen. If this were not true, proponents of the program would populate their model precinct with a mix of select veterans and recruits, thus answering the citizen complaints and rescuing the experiment.

Notwithstanding this possible method for salvaging the model precinct notion, this research team rejects the plan for other reasons. For one thing, limiting the recruits to a single precinct restricts the scope of experience they would be likely to obtain were they assigned over a broader territorial range; for another, the so-called cynical veterans might benefit from an interaction with the more idealistic young people. Department morale, too, would suffer from this concentrated assignment of manpower at a single moment because such an assignment demands the mass transfer of men from the experimental precinct, many of whom have devoted a dedicated service to their job. These latter might justifiably feel that their efforts had received small reward and consideration from the hierarchy. Role playing, dramas and systems approach lessons are all useful tools in the training of policemen, but, in each case, some aspects of the field problem are left unsolved. It is difficult to present real life problems exactly as they exist in other than an actual real life situation. For the policeman this would be the beat patrol.

Recommended Solution

Each recruit will be accompanied during his three field training periods, established in the new curriculum, by an experienced patrolman carefully selected for his dedication and for other personal attributes as specified below. In selecting the officers to provide such role models for trainees, it would be manifestly unwise to proceed randomly and to risk assigning one of the disillusioned cynics. Even the selection of the "average" patrolman might involve the risk of less than exemplary behavior. It would be of considerable advantage to the effectiveness of the program to single out the outstanding patrolmen previously mentioned to provide the occupational ideal upon which the recruit might model his own behavior and attitude. The painstaking selection of the training "escort" would represent an important difference between the proposed program and similar plans which have been employed in New York and other cities. The evils of the unwilling, randomly selected trainer-coach method have been frequently described. The Task Force on the Police has recommended a field training program in the following terms:

> Ideally, a recruit should initially receive classroom orientation on the nature of the police task and law enforcement responsibility. The remainder of the training program should be balanced between closely supervised field training experience and classroom sessions devoted to problem solving situations which closely parallel actual street problems. Under such a training program, classroom instruction and field experience could be interspersed over a period not exceeding 6 months.

The Task Force Report further states:

> The benefit of these programs is that a recruit can better assimilate classroom instruction that is related to actual incidents in the field. Through exposure to actual field problems, investigations and crime incidents the need and value of classroom training becomes vividly apparent to the trainee. In summary, formal training programs for recruits in all departments large and small, should consist of an absolute minimum of 400 hours of classroom work spread over a 4- to 6-month period so that it can be combined with carefully selected and supervised field training.

Selection of Escort Officers

Recruit escort officers would be selected on the basis of the following criteria:

Intelligence, as measured by standardized tests;

Job attitude, as inferred from personnel record and evaluated by personal interview, including self-respect and respect for occupation;

Emotional maturity, as appraised by test and personal interview;

Motivation for assignment, as appraised by personal interview;

Appearance, neatness, dress, as indicated by observation,

Commanding officer's recommendation;

Department record: Educational achievement, particularly during police department tenure; other indications of job interest, such as being on an eligible list for promotion.

Implementation of Program

On a particular day in New York City (August 12, 1969), there were about 6,129 patrolmen on active patrol duty. Of this number about 1,000 were assigned to duty at strikes and demonstrations. The selection of escort officers will be made from a manpower pool of this size, although not necessarily from this particular group. A sizable number of men are excused for vacation, regular days off, sick report and the like, and these will also be available for selection as trainers. However, since about 500 trainers will be needed at the peak field training period, a conservative estimate of the proportion of selectees to the total active patrol force would be about one of 12. There is no question that at least one-twelfth of our policemen operate at the ideal level sought in the escort officer.

Schedule

After completion of firearms training, which will occur at the end of the fourth, fifth, or sixth week of training, the recruits will begin their first field experience. Fieldwork will continue for a period of 1 week, during which time a program planned and designed to establish the relevance of the already experienced academic training will be carried out. The academic lessons to be given immediately succeeding the fieldwork will be known to the escort and anticipatory relevancies will be developed to enhance the significance of the material to be taught in the following academic period.

The second field training period, phase III of the recruit curriculum, will last 2 weeks and will occur some 4 weeks after the first period. Similarly, this period of field training will be designed to bridge two gaps; namely, the relevance of academic learning to actual practice, and the continuity between the first academic training period and the second.

At the termination of academic training, recruits will be assigned to their permanent field commands.

Familiarization with their new surroundings and the population, learning the geography and critical areas and particular local situations must be accomplished with the same forward-thinking attitude that characterized the earlier field training. Therefore, for a period of 1 week, phase V of the recruit curriculum, the newly assigned recruit will be accompanied by an escort officer. It will be the function of the escort officer at this phase to establish a practical relevance between the academy training program and the actual work situation, as well as orientation to the locale. One attractive aspect of the escort program is that, to implement it, the department does not deplete the patrol force in any way. Quite the contrary, the program amplifies the total function. The escort officer remains on patrol and, having been indoctrinated with the importance of his role-model status, he would probably, in order to provide a good example, perform more conscientiously than under ordinary circumstances. The presence of the accompanying recruit would double the physical strength of the team, possibly discouraging some citizen resistance in special cases of violent behavior.

Content of Training Program

The keynote of the escort training program is "total training." This will be accomplished not only by the exposure to actual work situations and the example of the escort officer in demonstrating correct technical methodology, but also by affording the trainee an opportunity to view many aspects of the police function. In addition to ordinary patrol, such a rationale involves a schedule of rotating assignments through the several specialized divisions, bureaus, and squads engaged in the various police tasks. Some secondary, and especially administrative, functions will be omitted. Thus, there will be a need for escort officers in specialized units, such as the youth aid division, the emergency service division, the tactical patrol force, and the special events squad. The content of the program will require some structure in order to relate it to each phase of the academy lessons. However, it would be manifestly impractical to set up a tightly structured, lecture type plan that would extend over the 8-hour workday. One technique for accomplishing this purpose would be to thoroughly familiarize the trainers with the academic program so that they will be constantly aware of the level the recruit has reached. Such awareness will enable the escort officer to set his instruction at a pace which will coordinate with the recruit's attainments in the academy.

Training the Escort Officer

The specially selected officers who express an interest in the escort officer assignment must be given an intensive training course to fit them for their new role. This course should not only provide a thorough refresher in the academic recruit program, but also a course in methods of instruction and other instructional techniques. In addition, seminars should be conducted designed to enhance leadership qualities, occupational morale, and interpersonal sensitivity.

Evaluation

The research team has developed an evaluation instrument (see pages 81 to 86) a checklist to be used by the escort to indicate the areas in which his trainee required instruction, with particular emphasis upon those functions which were covered in the previous academic training. Shortcomings in covered areas would provide the academy staff with some knowledge of those training areas which were not adequate in preparing the student for his job. It is expected that necessary revisions in academy training format would be made to remedy the failure. The evaluation would be applied during each phase of the escort training program.

No doubt the escort and his trainee will develop a friendly relationship. More than likely, the escort will not be inclined to give his "buddy" an unfavorable report. The evaluation objective of this report is the training program, not the trainee. Therefore, the reports would be submitted without identifying the trainee, a feature which should make for a more reliable measure of the effectiveness of the academic program. Similarly, the recruits will be provided with a form which will evaluate the effectiveness of their trainers. Such information will be tabulated and consistent deficiencies in the behavior or expertise of the escort officer will provide subject matter for future training sessions. As in the earlier case, this latter checklist would be submitted without identifying the escort officer.

Organizational Status of Escort Officers

Escort officers will be officially assigned to field commands and will, therefore, be responsible to their commanding officers. However, since the program is a training program, the academy would exercise staff supervision through the precinct unit training sergeant. This arrangement would make the escorts available to the training center for purposes of refresher and morale training. Additionally, the selection of a larger number of escorts, should they be required, would be feasible for the commanding officer of the Police Academy.

A central office for the collation, analysis, and interpretation of the evaluations should be set up at the academy and adequately staffed by qualified personnel. This office would also be available for direct service to the field people should problems arise. Academy instructors would be relieved of instructional duties and assigned by the central office to field supervision and evaluation on a rotating basis which would enable all instructors to acquaint themselves with the field programs. The central field training office, obviously, would need to be a 24-hour operation and the instructor supervisors assigned on a round-the-clock schedule.

Motivating the Escort Officer

There will be considerable sacrifice on the part of the escort officer in terms of individuality and, perhaps, limited precinct acceptance, at least in the beginning. The study effort involved in learning the academy program will also make considerable demand on his personal time. There may be a reluctance on the part of the experienced patrolman to accept a role which infringes upon his independence. The plan of regular appointments and systematic training curriculum proposed in this report would provide for continuous service as an escort officer. It may be argued that the truly dedicated patrolman, the ideal type for the assignment, would welcome this opportunity to be of service to the police profession. Some, indeed, will display this attitude. It would be too much to expect, however, that these idealists will be in sufficient numbers to staff a program of the magnitude of the one proposed. Moreover, if the status of training is to be elevated, if idealism is to be recognized by the department, those involved in directing such a movement must be awarded some recognition for their role in its furtherance.

Several methods might be employed to achieve both ends; namely, that of individual motivation and collective status as role models. One inducement to attract patrolmen to the new assignment might be additional compensation. There is a provision in the department rules at present to add a bonus of several hundred dollars to the annual salary of patrolmen performing tasks of an exceptional nature requiring unusual skills and an extra investment of time. As has been indicated, the proposed position of escort officer would fulfill both of these requirements. A second incentive might be found in an elevated status or rank. Presently, the lowest promotional rank in New York is that of sergeant and this is attained through competitive civil service examination. The selection process suggested for the escort officers is a demanding one and, although noncompetitive in the civil service sense, definitely stamps the selectee as above the average. The exempt rank of corporal might be created outside the civil service system in a manner similar to that of detective. Some uniform identification might be employed, such as two stripes on the sleeve, similar to the three of the sergeant. This would be in addition to the bonus proposed. A third, and less desirable, inducement might lie in additional excusal time. Although this is probably the most feasible technique presently available, it has at least one major shortcoming. The men selected would be the very best, most effective, intelligent officers. Additional excusal time for them would deprive the department of the services of these men, the very officers most useful in maintaining the high quality of the police service.

It is recommended, therefore, that the escort officers be elevated to the rank of corporal and awarded additional compensation.

Summary

In summary, the most critical features of the proposed program lie in the careful selection, training, and motivation of the escort officers. The success of the entire plan rests upon their integrity, dedication, and instructional ability. There can be little doubt that many of the 30 behavioral requirements for effective police performance listed by Baehr, Furcon, and Froemel are only minimally susceptible to classroom training alone. Even the escort officer will have limited success in inculcating such qualities as bravery and emotional maturity, but, at least, his example will provide an operational model of such qualities that the trainee can later follow on his own. The recruit and his trainer will meet as peers, an ideal learning situation.

First Field Evaluation Report on Recruits

The training escort program is designed to bridge the gap between academic training in the academy and actual police work on the city streets. In addition, the program seeks to provide on-the-job training for the recruit. Both of these objectives, if achieved, will greatly benefit the new officer and develop his self-confidence. The escort officer is the key to the success of the program. Not only is he for the recruit the role model of a professional police officer, but also a colleague, one who must welcome as well as train. Further, he functions as the evaluator of the department's recruit training program because he is in the best position to observe the fruits of it in the actual police work of new officers.

The first field evaluation will be prepared by the escort officer during the recruit's first week of field duty. It is important for the trainer to remember that the recruit has at this time completed approximately 100 hours of academic instruction in the police academy. The evaluation checklist is designed to encompass only material covered during these 100 hours. The main purpose of the evaluation is to assess the effectiveness of the recruit training program, so that remedial action may be taken in appropriate areas. Therefore, the recruit will not be identified by name on the form. The evaluation report also serves as a guide for the trainer to follow in training new officers.

In order that the evaluation be as objective as possible, the trainer should use the form on a daily basis rather than wait until the end of the field training period. Ideally, the trainer should ascertain various ratings after observing the recruit handling an actual police incident. However, some entries may require the trainer to directly question the recruit. It is not necessary to follow the numerical order on the rating form. The escort is free to rate as he obtains the information. However, all entries must be made by the end of the 1-week training period.

The evaluation instrument consists of a series of captions, each one identifying a salient area of the curriculum which the recruit has just completed. Instances of performance which relate to the caption will provide a basis for evaluating both the adequacy of the study program and the probationer's assimilation. Each item is accompanied by a scaled line, the numerical designations of which signify the following ratings.

1 2 3 4 5

1. *Performance excellent.*—Probationer appears to have learned the subject matter and shows ability to apply learning to practical job situation. No additional training needed.

2. *Performance good.*—Probationer has learned subject matter but has some trouble relating it to practice. No additional academic training needed. Additional field training is indicated.

3. *Performance fair.*—Probationer shows some weakness in subject matter. Academic training may have been underemphasized.

4. *Performance poor.*—Probationer demonstrates little knowledge of subject matter. His capacity and/or attitude may be at fault, but this area in program should be reexamined.

5. *Performance inadequate.*—Recruit is relatively ignorant of subject matter but has the capacity and attitude to have learned the material if it were properly presented. Training program may require some revision.

The evaluator is instructed to circle the number which best describes the recruit's performance in terms of the above definitions.

I. Appearance and equipment:
  - Neatness and cleanliness of person (beard, hair, and so forth); of equipment.
  - Behavior (expectorating, shouting, profanity, and so forth).

Posture (slouching, unmilitary, and so forth).
Revolver—safety consciousness.

Appearance and equipment

1 2 3 4 5

II. Discipline:
- Appears sufficiently self-disciplined.
- Knows and conforms to department regulations on personal conduct.
- Appreciates need for discipline in police department.
- Ethical (no gratuities; importance of not accepting free coffee, and so forth).
- Punctual.

Discipline

1 2 3 4 5

III. Courtesy:
- Military (salutes, proper address to superiors, and so forth).
- Public:
    - Respects people's dignity.
    - Answers questions properly.
    - Avoids anger, sarcasm, and so forth.
    - Telephone manners.
    - Courteous driver.
    - Handles a complainant well.

Courtesy

1 2 3 4 5

IV. Sitting room activity:
- Proper knowledge of activities.
- Proper performance (alarms, post information, and so forth).
- Able to read duty chart correctly.

Sitting room activity

1 2 3 4 5

V. Department buildings and equipment:
- Demonstrates knowledge of equipment.
- Properly uses equipment (lockers, precinct library, and so forth).
- Knows and obeys rules and procedures on buildings and equipment (who is allowed in station house, female cells, and so forth).
- Keeps rules and procedures up to date.
- Uses rules and procedures to look up procedures.

Department buildings & equipment

1 2 3 4 5

VI. Knowledge of police department in general:
- Knows duties of department.
- Knows order of ranks.
- Knows organization of department.
- Knows procedures for disciplinary charges and civilian complaints.
- Knows reports.
- Knows orders.

Knowledge of police department

1 2 3 4 5

VII. Knowledge of law:
- A. Definitions:
    1. Offenses, crime, misdemeanor, felony, possession.
    2. Assault.
    3. Deadly weapon and dangerous instrument.
    4. Menacing.
    5. Aiding and abetting suicide attempt.
    6. Miscellaneous offenses.
    7. Unlawful gratuities.
    8. Obstructing government officer.
    9. Refusing to aid police officer.
    10. Obstructing firefighter.
    11. Criminal impersonations.
    12. Resisting arrest.
    13. Bribery and bribe receiving.
    14. Disorderly conduct.
    15. Disorderly house.
    16. Public intoxication.
    17. False report of police incident.

Knowledge of law definitions

1 2 3 4 5

B. Law of arrest:

1. *Miranda* warnings.
2. Use of force in making arrest.
3. Authority for making arrest (misdemeanor, felony)
4. Authority under warrant, order of protection, certificate of warrant.
5. Authority of private person to make arrest.
6. Diplomatic immunity.
7. Y. D. 1 referral card.
8. Justifiable use of force.
9. Use of ordinary force; deadly force by peace officer, by private person.
10. Search and seizure, warrants.
11. Stop and frisk, U. F. 250.
12. Department policy re arrests for petty crimes.

Law of arrest

1 2 3 4 5

C. Traffic control:

1. Preliminary knowledge of vehicle traffic law and traffic regulations.
2. General understanding of the objectives of traffic control (prevent accidents, relieve congestion, and so forth).
3. Responsibility of members of force.
4. Selective enforcement.
5. Intoxicated drivers, procedures, arrests.
6. Preservation of evidence at accident cases, safety precautions, and so forth.

Traffiic control

1 2 3 4 5

VIII. Aided cases:

1. Definition.
2. Response (speed, care, and so forth).
3. Reporting and recording (U. F. 6).
4. Handling sick persons, dead bodies, psychos, neglected children, accident cases.
5. Other reports connected with aided cases, accident cases (U. F. 18, M. T. 6, M. V. 104, and so forth).

Aided cases

1 2 3 4 5

IX. Summons procedures:

1. Definition of summons and purpose.
2. Which violations are summonsable.
3. Persons eligible and ineligible to receive a summons.
4. Safeguarding the summons book.
5. Preparing the summons.

Summons procedures

1 2 3 4 5

X. Interpersonal human skills:

1. Appreciates effects of diverse subcultures on behavior.
2. Appreciates importance of public cooperation in witness testimony, jury duty, assisting patrolmen, and so forth.
3. Follows accepted principles of good public relations; politeness, sympathy, helpfulness, and so forth.
4. Does not display prejudicial attitude toward minority groups or ethnic groups other than his own.
5. Cooperates with representatives of the press.
6. Avoids abrasive contacts with minority group members and other members of the public.

Interpersonal human skills

1 2 3 4 5

XI. Miscellaneous department practices:

1. Knows proper procedure for reporting sick.
2. Knows proper procedure regarding injury to member of force (U.F. 6A, witness, and so forth).
3. Knows who are permitted in department automobiles.
5. Knows procedure for reporting lamp outages damage to traffic equipment, damage to Department vehicles, and so forth.

Miscellaneous department practices

1 2 3 4 5

XII. Patrol techniques:
  1. Proper observation of persons, places, traffic violations, post conditions, and so forth (see memo book insert).
  2. Proper notifications to desk officer, telephone switchboard operator, superior on patrol.
  3. Proper memo book entries.
  4. Obeys regulations regarding leaving post.
  5. Properly investigates suspicious persons.
  6. Checks stores and businesses properly.

Patrol techniques

1 2 3 4 5

The evaluation instrument proposed must, itself, be subject to continuous reevaluation. Course content will change over a period of time and the areas of field evaluation must be altered to suit the new situation. Moreover, the instrument proposed is a tentative one, an experimental model. Although it covers all the salient features likely to be embodied in the anticipated program, other items may be shifted into the first field experience phase and others transferred to later periods of instruction and evaluation to suit needs as they arise. The model proposed merely covers the first field training experience. After the program has been implemented and the content of each phase spelled out in detail, similar instruments can be developed for the succeeding field training periods.

5.4 Traditional Teaching Methods Supported by New Methods

In general, the teaching methods used in the Police Academy have been the traditional lecture system with a limited use of audiovisual aids such as motion pictures and transparencies used on overhead projectors. The effectiveness of the lecture system has been widely questioned in educational circles and certainly is inappropriate as the basic and almost exclusive teaching device in academy courses. There are several reasons for this judgment. Effective lecturing is a skill requiring special abilities not possessed by many members of any teaching staff. The academy instructor is at a special disadvantage when using the lecture medium. The attention span of recruits tends to be short, and the lecturer cannot, in most cases, assure continued interest and involvement. Again, students with educational deficiencies find the lecture system quite troublesome. It seems desirable, therefore, to deemphasize lectures as much as possible. The recommended new curriculum will encourage the use of varied instructional methods. It is hoped that the infusion of civilian staff and a more precise selection and more meaningful orientation procedure for police instructors will raise the level of instructional skills. The range of educational experiences provided by the new curriculum will assist in the process of diversification. Only in certain subjects and with certain instructors will the lecture method be effective.

The staff of this research project has examined instructional methods currently used in colleges, service academies, and business and industrial training programs. Three new techniques used by these agencies were examined in some depth—programed instruction, computer-assisted instruction, and film loops. The development of instructional materials for these three teaching methods is presently beyond the budget resources of the department, and it is not recommended that funds be appropriated for these techniques at this time. Their development would be more appropriately accomplished through outside funding by government agencies and/or private foundations. Perhaps developmental work can be undertaken cooperatively between several major police departments under a joint grant or other type of financial support arrangement. Any such project should be assigned to the educational materials development unit, one of the new support services recommended for the academy. One of the major responsibilities of this unit would be to plan, research, and institute projects in the area of new instructional methods, methods which ultimately may permit accelerated learning both within the recruit curriculum and in the inservice curriculum. Meanwhile, the present services provided by the visual aids unit at the academy should be extended and strengthened so as to provide more use of motion pictures, slides, and transparencies suitable for the overhead type of projector.

Programed Instruction

Programed instruction (PI) as a teaching method has been developed during the past decade and has been applied to a growing variety of subjects and skills. PI courses are available in school subjects like arithmetic and algebra, in shorthand, contract bridge, management training, computer programing, and the operation of machines. Retail organizations, such as J. C. Penney and R. H. Macy, have a significant in-house capability for writing and testing PI materials to train salesclerks and other personnel. PI includes three basic elements: stimulus, response, and reinforcement. PI requires a clear specification of what the student can do before training and what he must be able to do after training. A special technique is used for the presentation of instruction in steps which challenge the student but do not exceed his ability to master the subject. It requires frequent responses from the student, informs him of the adequacy of each response and adapts the instruction to his needs and abilities. Therefore, PI is a self-administered method of teaching which allows a person to work at his own pace. Information is presented in small steps, called frames, through which the student must reason one step at a time. An important aspect of PI is that the student is immediately "reinforced" after he has made a written response. This is accomplished by providing the correct response for each frame. An obvious advantage of the technique, in addition to the individual pace for completion, is that PI materials are packaged so that little guidance is required from an instructor, and the student, therefore, can use them at his convenience. The result is a substantial saving in classroom utilization and instructional time.

In preparing a programed text, the information to be learned is broken down into consecutive bits of information. A frame consists of an information bit, the stimulus, in the form of the question or problem; the response in the form of a provision for giving an answer; and the reinforcement in the form of the correct answer. When the programed text is studied, the correct answer is mechanically obscured until the response is made, after which it is immediately revealed. PI materials range from simple mimeographed booklets through complex "teaching machines." Essentially all of these devices have the same basic function.

The feasibility of developing PI materials can be determined only when the behavioral objectives of the education or training have been defined; that is, after clear, concise statements have been written that describe terminal behavior—what the student must be able to do after completing the course. Basically, PI materials are most effective when there is a specific body of information or behavior which needs to be taught—that is, the "how-to-do-" type of information. In November 1968, the Institute for Defense Analyses submitted a proposed national program of research on law enforcement and criminal justice to the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration. The report, prepared under the direction of Alfred Blumstein, stated:

> A project that might be undertaken in police, courts, corrections, or all three is the application of programed learning techniques and the development of the material content for courses using these techniques. Computerized and non-computerized programed learning techniques have been established and are currently in wide use throughout industry and the academic world. The major research task involves the development of course content material and method of presentation. These must be tested, evaluated, and compared with alternative teaching techniques in terms of time, money, and final levels of achievement attained. An important question that should be addressed when considering these techniques throughout the criminal justice system is the potential universality of such courses. How generally applicable, for example, would a police course in community relations be, and how much supplemental material would have to be added for specific regional areas and population groups?

The Armed Forces have made extensive use of PI materials. The diagram on page 86 representing programing procedures, has been taken from Air Force Manual No. 50–1, January 1967.

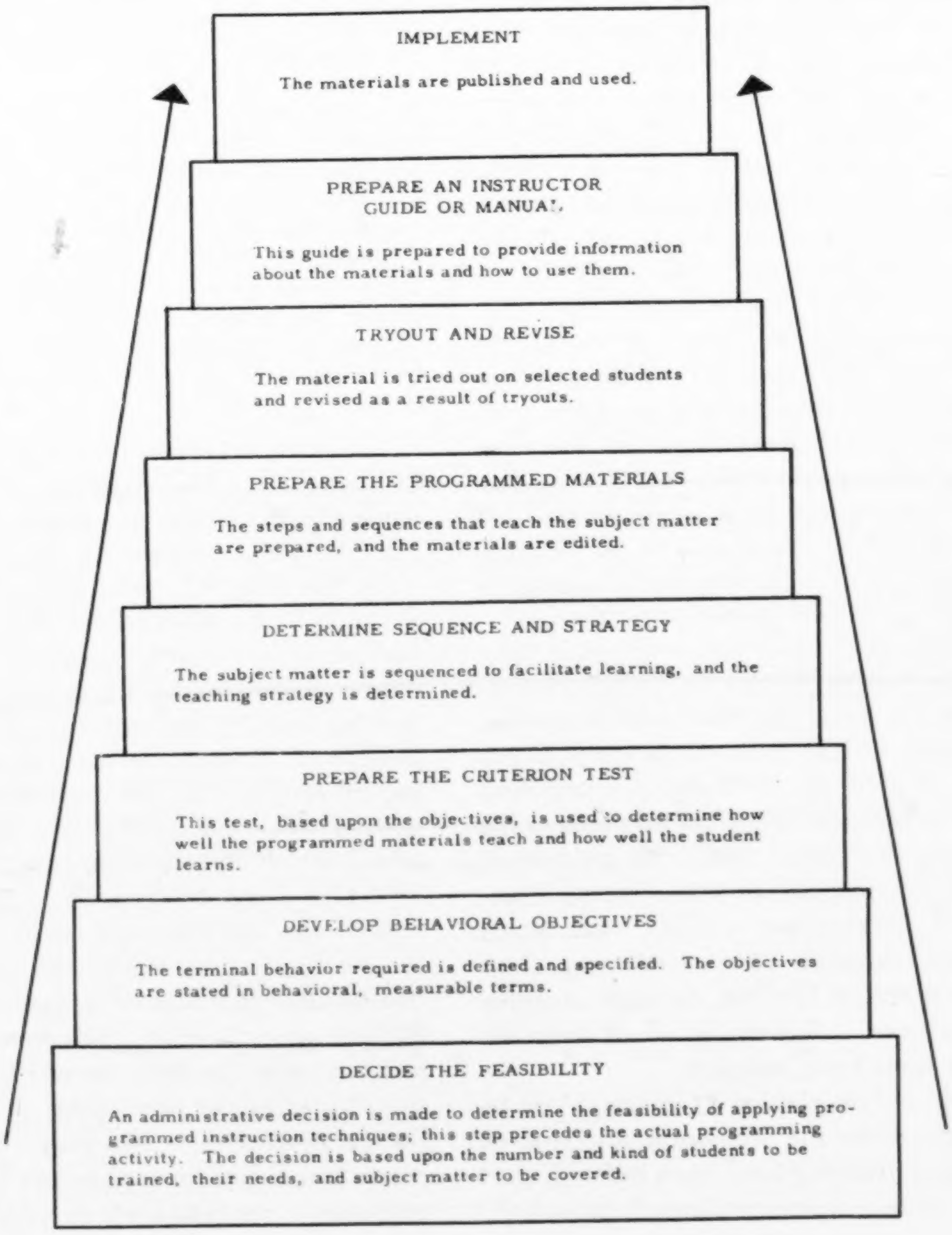
On February 14, 1966, the commanding officer of the Police Academy forwarded a proposal for a Federal grant to train academy staff in the techniques of producing PI materials. This memo pointed out the applicability of self-instructional programed material to law enforcement training and education. In the judgment of the research staff of this project, this is a proposal which is quite relevant and one which should be followed up. The 1966 proposal correctly suggested that members of the academy staff could be trained to do the necessary programing and testing under the professional direction of an expert in PI methods. Business agencies with whom discussions have taken place in regard to their use of PI have emphasized the importance of developing an in-house staff to do the programing. Not only are costs thus held down, but a greater competence in subject matter relevance exists in-house than with consultant staffs.

The success of the data processing unit of the department in developing police officers professionally competent in computer programing suggests that no special problem should be anticipated in developing a PI competence at the academy.

The development of an adequately funded project for the preparation of PI materials in the law enforcement area would have many benefits. In order to program, it is necessary to identify a standard body of materials to be learned. Thus the rules and procedures of the department would lend themselves to PI units. Procedures in the use of firearms, self-defense skills in physical training, car and person stops, and recordkeeping are topics which are sufficiently clear cut to lend themselves to PI programing. In net, PI requires the development of distinct programing models for a representative range of behavioral tasks that occur in police training.

Computer-Assisted Instruction

The development of high-speed modern digital computers suggests that a second new approach is possible for the instructional process. Course material and course logic may be stored in the computer memory. Students can communicate with such a system through a variety of instruments, one



IMPLEMENT

The materials are published and used.

PREPARE AN INSTRUCTOR GUIDE OR MANUAL

This guide is prepared to provide information about the materials and how to use them.

TRYOUT AND REVISE

The material is tried out on selected students and revised as a result of tryouts.

PREPARE THE PROGRAMMED MATERIALS

The steps and sequences that teach the subject matter are prepared, and the materials are edited.

DETERMINE SEQUENCE AND STRATEGY

The subject matter is sequenced to facilitate learning, and the teaching strategy is determined.

PREPARE THE CRITERION TEST

This test, based upon the objectives, is used to determine how well the programmed materials teach and how well the student learns.

DEVELOP BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVES

The terminal behavior required is defined and specified. The objectives are stated in behavioral, measurable terms.

DECIDE THE FEASIBILITY

An administrative decision is made to determine the feasibility of applying programmed instruction techniques; this step precedes the actual programming activity. The decision is based upon the number and kind of students to be trained, their needs, and subject matter to be covered.

of which is a console with a keyboard like that of an electric typewriter. Unlike many teaching aids, the computer is a very flexible instrument, since its instructional logic may be shaped toward a variety of teaching objectives. The computer is a device which can provide immediate knowledge of this correctness, partial correctness, or incorrectness of responses to each student as he works through a sequence of questions. Because of the growing use of computers in the instructional process, a consultant was commissioned by this research project to survey the present status of CAI work (see footnote at bottom of page). As with programed instruction and teaching machines, there is an interaction of scholarly research, applied development and engineering progress in CAI. Members of the research staff of this project observed CAI instructional procedures used by International Business Machines Corp. in training their own personnel. It is possible that a suitably structured experiment with CAI in police training would win a favorable reaction from IBM, and perhaps other manufacturers, in the form of technical assistance, hardware, and software support. At this time there is no excess computer capacity within the electronic data processing division of the police department, which has two IBM 360/40 computers and one IBM 1401 computer. With the implementation of Project SPRINT (Special Police Radio Inquiry Network—a computer-based communication system), the computer time of the two 360 computers is completely committed. The 1401 computer is in full use in the preparation of current reports for the department. Thus, there is no existing computer time within the department for an experimental CAI program. This means that a time-sharing tie-in with other computers would be necessary. With the development of a specific project proposal for experimentation with CAI, officials of IBM could be approached for assistance in tieing into the computer network.

Instructional uses of computers have been under investigation for more than 10 years and the field continues to change rapidly from year to year. The first projects in computer teaching were begun in 1958 at IBM's Watson Research Center, System Development Corp., and Bolt, Beronek & Newman. By 1961, five major projects were under way and this number quadrupled by 1965. At present, more than 100 projects of all sizes and levels are being conducted on research, development, and actual use of interactive computer systems.

Teaching by computer is known by many names: Computer-based instruction (CBI), computer-assisted learning (CAL) computer-aided teaching (CAT) or computer-assisted instruction (CAI). Although CAI is the more popular and common name used, a single underlying idea persists among all these names, that is, "the computer is used to aid and abet both teacher and student in the educational process." In addition, "CAI encompasses only those situations in which the computer appears as surrogate for a human instructor * * * as an umbrella for all teaching/learning contexts in which the student is obligated, or chooses, to use the computer."* The complexity and detail of the CAI application will have an important bearing on the hardware and software needs to support the CAI effort. The major projects, to date, in the universities are Government funded. Several special-purpose CAI systems have been officially announced and many more are being developed. The one major conclusion that can be made at this point, disregarding the pros and cons of CAI and the many controversies that have raged and have yet to rage, is that CAI is here to stay.

The single most powerful argument presented for using CAI is the concept of individualized instruction. Throughout the years, it has been shown that more successful learning is experienced when the educational curriculum is adapted to the individual learner. The computer allows each student to proceed according to his own capability with his performance constantly monitored. According to Patrick Suppes, "the principal obstacles to computer-assisted instruction are not technological but pedagogical: how to devise ways of individualizing instruction and of designing a curriculum that is suited to individuals instead of groups."

A second feature of CAI is its capability to collect systematic data on how students succeed or fail in the process of learning given material. Achievement tests given once a term do not usually indicate clearly how to improve the curriculums. The computer, however, can provide daily performance records, which will allow evaluation of any aspect of the curriculum, even of individual pages and/or individual exercises.

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*Report by Dr. Israel Pressman, consultant to the police training and performance study.

In addition, CAI programs offer the opportunity to multiply the effect of the best teachers by repetitive use of programs generated by their talents and refined by their experience. CAI permits the teaching of material in areas where either no qualified instructors are available, the students are constrained to the location, or students are available only at irregular hours.

A student can interact with the computer in three separate ways. He can use the computer for drill and practice sessions which would supplement the regular teaching process. This work is particularly suitable for the skill subjects. A second application for the student is the tutorial system. Here a system is designed to help the student understand a concept and develop skill in using it. The aim is to approximate the interaction between a patient tutor and an individual student. In the final instance, the student would engage in a dialogue with the computer. Although drill-and-practice and tutorial systems are already in operation on an experimental basis, the dialogue system is some years away because of technical problems.

CAI can be used to indoctrinate new employees and update senior employees as to the current views and requirements of the employer. The computer can be used to simulate real situations and train the employees to react properly when confronted with the actual situation. CAI can be used to evaluate new plans or to provide a variety of inhouse education programs. In fact, CAI can be adapted to almost any application that makes use of the combination of a control console, a display and a computer interface.

A variety of modes are used for the man-machine interaction in CAI systems. These various modes arise because of the need to display different kinds of material to the learners: text, audio, and graphics. At the present time probably no operating CAI system is capable of presenting effectively all the above materials to the learner. Most CAI systems use a typewriter as their interface with the learner. These typewriters are usually the keyboards of teletypewriters connected by telephone lines to the computer. Input/output is performed on continuous rolls of paper usually at a speed too slow for college level reading. This mode of interaction greatly limits the kind of text that can be used. In addition, maps, graphs, or diagrams cannot be displayed.

Some systems include a computer-controlled slide projector to allow presentation of any material not suitable for teletype display. However, the set of slides is predetermined and fixed for any program. In addition, a tape recorder under computer control to supplement the slides and typewriter can be included. Another mode of interaction is via the cathode ray tube (CRT) display panel which can be inputed either by typewriter or light pen. Here no hard copy for retention is available, a serious problem in some situations. CRT systems may be also constrained in size and total cable length. Since no general system is available for all situations, researchers must improvise to meet total CAI objectives.

A number of major experiments with CAI have taken place in recent years. At Stanford University a system has been developed for teaching children on the elementary school level in both the "drill and practice" area and the "tutorial" area. The mode of man-machine interaction is a visual display with the use of a light pen for direct communication with the questions. At the University of California on the Irvine Campus, a computer and 21 terminals are in use. By June 1968 the system provided about 15 minutes per week of terminal time for each student on the campus. Considerable efforts have been made to prepare suitable software as an interdisciplinary project with subject matter experts, instructional programers and computer programers. CAI was introduced into the New York City public schools in September of 1968. The system now serves some 3,600 pupils and consists of 192 terminals connected by telephone lines to a computer. At the present time an arithmetic program of drill and practice is available for students from the second to the sixth grades. The terminals consist of teletypes with input/output via printing on a roll of paper. The computer not only drills the students but provides the teacher with a daily printout of each student's performance. Since 1960, at the University of Illinois, a computer-based teaching system called Plato has been in use. There are now 20 graphic pictorial terminals connected to this computer. Experiments have been conducted with a variety of subjects in drill and practice form and by student-directed inquiry. At Brooklyn College of the City University of New York experiments have been conducted with a CAI system utilizing a computer connected by teletype with a paper roll input/output and a second system which is a self-contained one with CRT displays and a constraint of 2,000 feet of cable from the terminals to the processing unit. This system serves both the regular college students and the SEEK students. Another example of recent experimental work is a CAI teletype project with 17 terminals and 12 CRT display terminals at the U.S. Naval Academy.

CAI systems can be classified in three basic groups. The first is the strict teletype input/output such as used at Dartmouth College and in the New York City public schools. The number of terminals depends basically on the size of the computer with no restriction as to location of the terminals. The second class of systems is the self-contained CRT display system. This system is limited in number of terminals and is constrained by a maximum cable length. The third class of systems are the large scale systems like the Plato system of the University of Illinois. This system is designed to handle 4,000 terminals with flat panel displays. Many variations of these three system types are either being experimented with, developed or planned.

The number of CAI languages in various stages of development is more than 20 and still growing. In general, the languages can be placed in one of four general groups. The advantages and/or disadvantages of the various languages must be evaluated with respect to which characteristics the user desires. The aspects which are included when considering the merits of a language are lesson handling, record handling, user orientation, conditional branching, answer matching service routines, calculation provisions, communication devices.

Effectiveness of CAI Systems

Although research is moving along rapidly in the CAI field, very little has been published concerning the effectiveness of using CAI in its various applications. One study claims that CAI was effective in teaching electrical engineering. Students taught by the inquiry method showed greater problem-solving ability than those taught by the tutorial method. Students gained some insight into the learning process, thereby improving the material presented in both inquiry and tutorial modes. This study concluded that the PLATO CAI system can both teach and explore physical and behavioral experiments; thus the system is described as "versatile" and "flexible."

At Stanford, study of the results of the experiment with elementary school children, previously discussed, showed an improvement in learning from the drill and practice routines. Students were presented 24 questions each day for 6 days. The percentage correct improved from 53 percent to more than 90 percent, while the response time diminished from an average of 630 seconds to 279 seconds. The analysis also showed that every child in the group had improved.

CAI has been used for clinical nursing instruction. A control group and a PLATO group were compared before and after some nursing material was presented using the ordinary means, and the CAI approach. While the results for the pretest indicated no significant difference between the two groups, post-test results showed a significant difference at the 9-percent level with the PLATO group scoring higher.

IBM has conducted an experiment where three experimental groups were to learn a portion of a FORTRAN course by three methods—computer, programed text, and conventional text. Achievement tests indicated that the computer group had achieved a mean score significantly higher than either of the other two groups. However, despite the extra assistance provided them, the less able students did not outperform the more able students.

A study was undertaken to test the feasibility of CAI for industrial training. Seventy-nine students of data processing principles received instruction through programed texts and 25 equivalent students received training through a computer system. No significant difference in examination scores was obtained. However, about a 10-percent saving in time to complete the course was achieved. Both groups rated their respective methods of instruction as approximately equal to the regular classroom techniques in terms of effectiveness and desirability.

The Cost Factor in CAI

One of the most important factors affecting the decision to implement an operating CAI system is the cost factor. At present the cost of the system has played a minor role in the experimental phase. Almost all funds for CAI projects have been supplied by research grants. The one major exception is the PLATO project at the University of Illinois, which is designing its system so that the cost of the CAI system should be comparable with the cost of teaching using conventional methods. The goal is to achieve a cost of 25 to 30 cents per terminal hour for the use of the computer and terminal. The PLATO project hopes to be implemented with 4,000 remote terminals by 1972–73.

Costs for lesson material is based on the concept that the CAI material would be produced at a cost equivalent to a good textbook, with royalties going to the author for each use of the material. The general consensus is that CAI should be further investigated and the cost factor examined closely. The major warning is to limit the acceleration with which CAI is promoted so that professional educators do not lose control of the concept, giving way to the marketers of CAI equipment, programs, displays, and gimmicks.

Two major areas exist where CAI might be applied either to present activities in the police department or to some new activities that might be generated. The first area is in the academy. Although only part of the time at the academy is spent in classroom training, it is possible that some material might be presented via a CAI mode. Many recruits, because of their background and previous training, have difficulty in the classroom. Thus, in addition to regular class usage of CAI, those students who need extra help could be drilled or tutored via CAI. The possible advantage to the CAI approach is that students could use the facilities whenever it was convenient for them. Since the training period at the academy is very short, the computer via several CAI courses could, in addition, assist in the evaluation of the recruits.

The second area of interest, one which probably offers a greater variety of applications, is the in-service training program. It is necessary from time to time, as in other occupations, for police personnel to review various subjects and/or procedures. In addition, as new laws come into existence, new procedures are instituted and new information is constantly being generated. For this application it would be necessary to have a terminal in each of the 80 precincts connected to some central computer. Personnel would use the terminal at their convenience, signing in to any program that was not being used at that time. By suitable programing, several terminals could use the same program at the same time. In addition to reviewing, updating, and procedure practice, personnel could prepare for promotion examinations via suitable CAI programs.

One possibility that could make CAI a feasible experiment in the police department would be a project structured for outside funding, possibly in cooperation with the John Jay College of Criminal Justice and Brooklyn College. On the other hand, a Dartmouth-type time-sharing system with typed output only may be feasible at the academy and at selected precincts. This system would be the most inexpensive because terminals can be rented on a monthly basis and computer time is paid as service is used. Thus, experiments could be performed with as many terminals as was seen to be practical and useful.

At present course material necessary for a police CAI system is not available. While it is true that some available material might be adapted for police usage, as a general rule the required programs would have to be generated. The level or sophistication of programing ability for generating this material will depend on the kind of system used. Discussions with the programing group in the department indicate that they neither have the manpower nor the time to devote to developing CAI material. It would thus be necessary to hire outside consultants to prepare the CAI programs. These consultants, together with academy instructors and police administrators, would comprise a team capable of producing good CAI material.

Film Loops

The third new instructional method investigated by members of the research staff of this project is film loops. Again, as in the case of programed instruction and computer-assisted instruction, the film loop technique lends itself to specific "know-how" types of knowledge. In law enforcement training, a number of topics would lend themselves to film loop methods. The preparation of film loops should, like programed instruction, be an in-house operation, with members of the academy instructional staff preparing the film loop material for camera and film processing.

The academy now has a 16-millimeter film library, with projection and production equipment which is superior in quantity and quality to most educational institutions. However, 8-millimeter film in the form of a cartridge film loop has distinct advantages over the 16-millimeter motion picture film as an instructional medium. Until recently 8-millimeter film has been thought of as an amateur's medium and 16-millimeter has been the standard in education and training for over 30 years. Technical indecision, centering particularly on the kind of soundtrack to use on 8-millimeter film, has deterred the more rapid development of this miniature gauge of film. Beginning in the fall of 1969, new projectors and other elements of a full 8-millimeter system will make possible a truly viable growth of this medium in police training at all levels. The 8-millimeter film loop uses ordinary 8-millimeter color movie film with the end connected to the beginning to form an endless loop of about 4 minutes running time .This loop is placed inside a plastic cartridge and the cartridge may be inserted into a slot in a projector which automatically turns on the machine, providing a TV-type 14-inch picture on a built-in screen. Some film loops have already been made experimentally in the police academy. The academy has the equipment and know-how necessary for production. Only the film duplication and placing in cartridges needs to be done commercially.

An examination of the broad characteristics of motion pictures is required to properly understand the nature and special characteristics of 8-millimeter film loops. Films can compress or expand time or space, eliminate unnecessary details and focus the viewer's attention on significant details. Actions and ongoing processes involving motion are best observed through films. The viewer is attracted to moving images. Appropriate editing of films can dramatize reality and eliminate distracting elements. From the teaching point of view, a film can present a model performance superior to that of many classroom instructors. Films can efficiently present problem situations which the instructor can integrate with other materials to guide the reaction of the viewers into useful channels of discussion.

The rapid growth of 8-millimeter film loops as instructional materials is due to the greater ease and accessibility and lower cost of the loops as compared with standard 16-millimeter motion pictures. Compared to 16 millimeter, the 8-millimeter film is one-fourth the size and mass of 16-millimeter film and moves at one-half the speed through the projector. These physical characteristics make it possible to put 8-millimeter film in simple, inexpensive cartridges, to increase the life of prints, and to reduce processing and printing costs. A production group to develop film loops requires a subject expert to determine the need and technical accuracy of film content, a producer to coordinate the operation, a writer to prepare the shooting script, a director to direct the film according to the script, a cinematographer to photograph the material, an editor to cut the photographed material into a usable film, and a soundman to record sound. It is clear that the level at which the production group functions will determine the necessary sophistication of the staff.

It is recommended that as many of these functions as possible be performed by qualified academy staff and as few as possible be performed under contract with outside commercial organizations. The reason for this recommendation is not primarily to reduce cost but to emphasize the importance of producing a viable product which meets the needs of the department in the most effective manner. Experience suggests that the products produced by outside agencies under contract frequently do not prove completely successful when used in a police training program.

While he was a member of the academy staff, the consultant to this project in the area of film loops produced experimental 8-millimeter film loops. He has suggested the following guidelines and costs as reasonable in connection with the production of loops:

Each film loop will be about 3½ minutes in length. (It is not good policy to put the maximum of 4 minutes in a cartridge. Experience shows a sharp rise in malfunction between 3 and 4 minutes.)

Photographing will be done in Eastman Kodak 7255 Ektrachrome (16 millimeter).

No special or optical effects will be used.

The academy will deliver to the lab the edited original film material "single strand" (or in one continuous strip).

A shooting ratio of 4 to 1 (400 feet of exposed film to obtain 90–100 feet of edited film).

44 feet Ektrachrome, standard 16 mm	$32
Processing at $0.05 a foot	20

After editing there will be 90–100 feet of film (16 millimeter).

Direct printing from the 16 mm original to 8 mm. loaded into cartridge, quantity 1 dozen, each	$6.50
or	
Printing 16 mm. internegative from the 16 mm. original	$20.00–$25.00
Answer print, 8 mm. in cartridge	6.50– 7.00
Release prints, 8 mm. in cartridge:	
Quantity, dozen	5.00– 7.00
Quantity, 100 each	3.50– 4.00

Therefore, it can be expected that processing and printing costs will run from about $11 per cartridged print (for 1 dozen quantity) to about $4.50–$5 per print (for 100 quantity). These are minimum costs and represent a compromise with the best quality in release prints. In order to obtain the best quality in release prints (which would be desirable for public sale), it is recommended that a "work print" be made from the original film. Editing decisions can be made on the work print and then the original can be cut to match. This procedure, which is usual in commercial film production, will increase the costs of the film by the extra cost of a work print and the extra editing time as follows: one light color work print at $0.083 per foot (400 feet), $33.20.

It is recommended that, until academy personnel acquire the required skills, a professional editing service be used. Processing laboratories provide such services for $15–$20 per hour. A freelance editor might be hired at a lower rate and this alternative would be advised if substantial amounts of work were to be done. The careful scheduling of production, so that the amounts of work delivered to the laboratories are within the limits for bulk processing costs, will reduce the final film processing and printing costs.

Estimates have been received from various producers for the production of special-purpose-built projection equipment for use with the 8-millimeter cartridge film loops. The estimates range from $250 to $300 per unit. The final cost will vary depending upon the exact specifications requested. The cost of the regular rearview technicolor projectors Nos. 600 or 610 will be somewhat less. The exact cost will be determined by the usual contract bidding procedure.

In order to structure a valid experimental program in the use of film loops it is recommended that this program be based in the educational materials development unit at the academy. Since one of the most promising uses of film loops—a consequence of their technical characteristics—is the possibility of placing loops and viewing equipment at several locations, the experiment should be conducted in a number of precincts. Ultimately a film loop library might be made available in the sitting room at each precinct so that members of the force could, at their own initiative, place a film loop in the projector and view the material. This would, in effect, be a brief "refresher" in the topic of the film loop.

Two groups of five precincts representative of the entire department should be selected for a total of 10 test areas. Film loop projectors would be installed in each of the 10 precincts and a spare in the academy for quick maintenance and for academy use in preparing materials. A film loop library would be set up in each test precinct and at the academy consisting of a quantity of cartridged film loops on a variety of subjects. A list of titles would be posted in the sitting room. The loops could be issued by the desk officer on request or be specifically assigned to individual patrolmen. Records would be maintained in a book for that purpose by the unit training sergeant (or by the desk officer in his absence), who would also administer pre-tests and post-tests to evaluate the study variables—learning, motivation, and interest.

Films would be available at all hours, before, after, and during a tour of duty for those who would avail themselves of them. Some of the loops might be accompanied by printed training memos to provide a "package" approach. For economy during the experimental period, film loops could be rotated from precinct to precinct rather than provide all precincts with duplicate copies.

Subjects suitable for film cartridges are:

Patrol:
- Techniques of foot patrol.
- Techniques of radio motor patrol.
- Recognition of violations (ordinances, regulations).
- Recognition of street conditions.
- Use and care of equipment and uniforms.
- Techniques of observation.
- Accident scene—investigation and protection of.
- Crime scene—investigation and protection of.
- Stop and frisk—techniques.

- Arrest—procedures and techniques.
- Searching and handling of prisoners.
- Handling of evidence—preservation and marking.
- Reponse tactics.
- Stops—automobile and persons.
- Use of handcuffs.
- Use of the baton.
- Use of the daystick.
- RMP inspection.
- Report writing.

Traffic:
- Principles of control.
- Gestures.
- Inspection of vehicles and trucks.

Criminal investigation:
- MO of burglaries.
- MO of gamblers, bookmakers, etc.
- Recognition of policy slips, bookmakers' slips.
- Recognition of narcotics, drugs, marihuana.
- MO of auto theft, burglaries from.
- Recognition of contraband materials.
- Fingerprinting.
- Moulage.
- Crime scene sketching.
- Recognition of evidence.

Crowd control:
- Tactical formations and maneuvers.
- Use of weapons.
- Use of batons, helmets, shields.
- Gas:
    - Types and uses.
    - Situations requiring—outdoors and use.
    - Situations requiring—indoors and use.
    - Firing gas gun.
    - Grenades—use.
    - Smoke grenades—use.
    - Containers and precautions.
    - Use of masks.
- Small unit tactics.
- Search of buildings.
- Sniper attacks.

Firearms and weapons:
- Care, cleaning, and maintenance of firearms.
- Proper wearing and adjustment of holster and cartridge belt.
- Combat loading.
- Combat firing positions.
- Firing techniques.
- Handling automatic pistols.
- Handling dangerous weapons.
- Fire bombs:
    - Types and descriptions.
    - Handling.
    - Defense against.
    - Extinguishing.
    - Person on fire.
- Firearms safety—personal weapons.
- Presenting revolver for inspections.

Physical skills:
- Self-defense tactics.
- Swimming and rescue.
- General health—exercises.
- Come-along holds.

General:
- First aid techniques.
- Two-way radio operation.
- Equipment—used by special units (e.g., emergency service squads) and available for special situations.
- Problem solving—open end.

5.5 Criminalistics Training

In phase II of the new recruit curriculum, course unit C is a unit on criminalistics, crime scene operations, and practical criminalistics. This unit of 18 hours has been introduced because of the need to expose all members of the department to some basic knowledge of criminalistics and the requirements for the preservation of evidence at a crime scene. Thirty years ago recruits were required to study criminalistics, and one of the four required texts in the then academy course was devoted almost entirely to scientific methods in crime detection. During the years since that time the amount of attention given to criminalistics has varied in accordance with the personal interest in the subject on the part of administrators and instructors. Because of developments within the department making necessary a greater amount of knowledge in this area on the part of all policemen, a consultant was retained to examine appropriate materials in the criminalistics area for introduction into the new recruit curriculum.

Looking back over the history of this subject at the academy, the consultant commented "in the fluctuating process of criminalistics training one factor has been constant: The subject has always been treated as a mystique to be employed only through the agency of its own ordained priesthood, the laboratory technician." Many officers studying for the Department of Personnel promotion examinations to superior officer rank have obtained a substantial knowledge of the theory of criminalistics. The reason for this is quite simple. Questions on the subject appear on promotional examinations. Unfortunately, the emphasis has been on theoretical criminalistics, whereas the need is for the type of applied criminalistics required in the field. In 1969, two procedural changes were introduced within the New York City Police Department. One, the equipping and training of precinct detective squads to do fingerprint processing and photographing; the second, the institution of an experimental project in six precincts where "run-of-the-mill" burglaries are investigated by members of the patrol force. Progress reports indicate the advisability of extending both these practices. In terms of training this means that, in the near future, members of the force, both patrolmen and detectives, are to be involved in crime scene activity and the handling and development of physical evidence. The logical place for the needed basic training in criminalistics and the techniques concerned lies within the recruit curriculum. Whatever additional specialization may be indicated for certain assignments it seems plain that every graduate of the academy should have a knowledge of practical criminalistics. This arrangement ultimately would equip all members of the force to perform preliminary crime scene investigations and the simpler procedures for exploitation of physical evidence. In this connection it is most significant that a very high percentage of fruitful evidence is developed from the simpler procedures involving fingerprints, footprints, toolmarks, and the location of traces left by the perpetrator of a crime.

Behind the procedural changes which introduce heretofore uninvolved personnel to the area of criminalistics are two major factors. The first is the greatly increasing premium on nonsubjective evidence, brought about by changed legal requirements. The second is the increase in crime, or more particularly as it applies here, the volume of crime.

In the new recruit curriculum the criminalistics unit comes in phase II, which is the professionalization phase. It is in this phase that the recruit receives his first exposure to field duty. The criminalistics unit needs to be realistic and relevant. It is proposed that the recruits, in groups of 20, should be given three consecutive days (18 hours) training organized as follows:

	Hours
Lecture, slide, and exhibit survey	4
Lecture, slide, demonstrations	3
Demonstration practice and critique covering print development, toolmarks, footprints, preliminary blood tests, ultraviolet examinations, and others	6
Simulated crime scene search, evidence development tests, ultraviolet examinations, and others	5

Students should keep some notes, but on a very limited basis to avoid preoccupation. Handouts covering key areas should be distributed, with some excellent material available from Police Academy training bulletins, and the FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin.

During the 18-hour training program, straight lecturing should be kept to a minimum. It will be necessary to survey the basics through lectures, supplemented by blackboard illustration. Beyond that point the keynote should be demonstration and student practice. This is in keeping with the thrust of the course towards action rather than theory. The model to be followed is a science laboratory course format where individual students or groups of two or three copy the procedures exemplified by the instructor, and are checked and corrected by a roving laboratory assistant. This routine would apply to the simple testing and developing techniques as well as to the lifting, packaging, and marking of physical evidence.

Crime scene search and recording procedures should be demonstrated and practiced with some of the class participating and the others playing an observer role. At all stages of these activities questions and suggestions should be encouraged and generated. As a final exercise, simulated crime scene situations should be set up by the staff. Solutions to problems at the scene should be sought by one group of students whose efforts would then be critiqued by the others. An outdoor crime scene at the outdoor range facilities would be most useful for this final exercise. Serious consideration should be given to the feasibility of holding the course entirely at the outdoor range facility.

There, a rough laboratory setting might be more easily arranged than at the academy building, and the cleanup and storage problems might be more easily handled. The advantages of outdoor area crime scene practice would introduce valuable training in plaster-cast work, soil sampling, plant sampling, and other procedures which could be limited by an exclusively indoor setting. The survey of practical criminalistics will cover the following elements:

Problem of identity
Class
Individual

Tool impressions
Pressure
Friction

Prints
Rules of dactyloscopy
Basic classification patterns
Latent prints:
  Development
  Dusting
  $AgNO_3$
  Iodine
  Ninhydrin
Poroscopy

Body materials
Blood Test:
  Preliminary
  Chemical (confirmatory serological)
Semen tests
Secretors:
  Semen) Tears
  Saliva) Sweat
  Bile
  Milk

Ultraviolet and infrared
Firearms evidence
Caliber—Land to land
Identifying weapon:
  Bullet
  Cartridge case
  Muzzle distance

Hair
Cuticle
Cortex
Medulla
Medullary Index

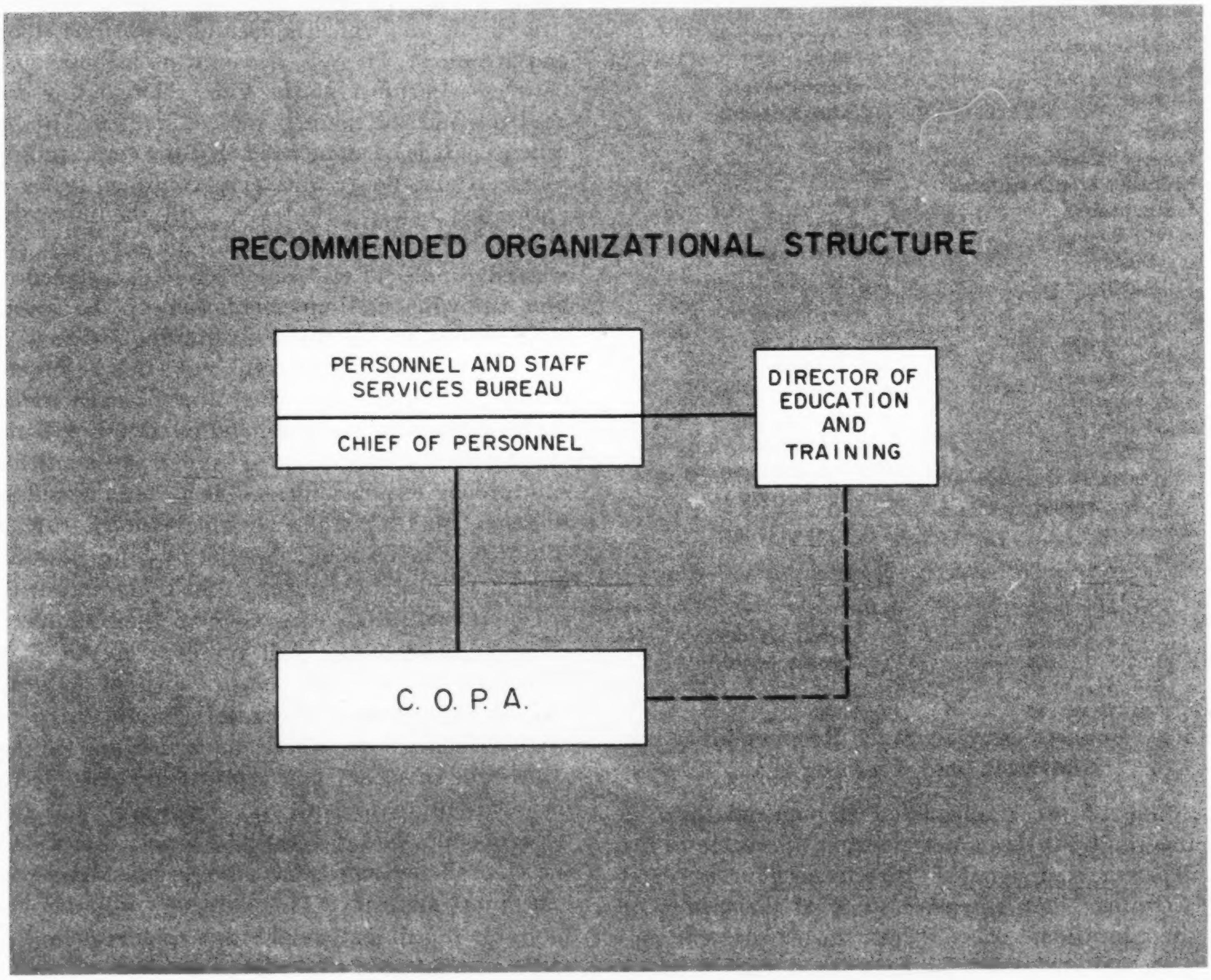
Instrumental analysis
vs. (wet chemistry)
Spectrophotometer
Spectrograph
Gas Chromatograph
X-ray diffraction spectrometer
Neutron activation analysis
Electron microscope

Trace examinations
Soil
Metal
Glass:
  Refractive index
  Density (gradient)

5.6 Departmentwide Staff Responsibility for Education and Training

One of the fundamental recommendations of this project is that a new position be created in the department, designated "Director of Education and Training." An intensive study of the history of the educational effort within the department suggests that a weakness has been the absence of direct responsibility for education at all levels. Some students of police organization have suggested a civilian head for a police academy and a few departments have appointed civilian directors. The advantages of the civilian head are claimed to be a broader perspective, more professional outlook and generally a liberal point of view toward the requirements of education and training. It is the consensus of the research staff of this project, however, that the nature of the police service and particularly the requirements in recruit training call for the continuation of a police commander as head of the academy. The need to maintain a command posture in the police service is difficult to question. Working with recruits and members of the force in general, the maintenance of discipline and the establishment of the habits of response to command are necessary. Within the hierarchy of a police department the command structure is one which is natural, well understood and accepted. There is, however, no inconsistency between a member of the force commanding the academy and the maintenance of standards of excellence. It is recommended that the commanding officer of the Police Academy continue to be a uniformed officer. However, with the increased responsibilities and in particular with the increased number of staff reporting to or assigned to him through the implementation of the escort training concept and the unit training revisions, it is recommended that the rank of COPA be higher than Deputy Inspector, which is the current rank.

Having assured the command relationship, there does remain a real concern with departmentwide educational responsibilities. It is recommended, therefore, that a civilian be appointed director of education and training. Specifically, this position should be filled by a distinguished educator with academic credentials equivalent to those required for appointment as a full professor in the City University of New York. Such a civilian, in addition to his academic credentials, should bring to this position a sympathetic understanding of the police role in society and a leadership attitude in his relationship to both the community and the department. The director will report directly to the chief of personnel and serve as his advisor on education matters. The director will be responsible for all matters affecting the development and maintenance of educational standards throughout the department, curriculum development, teaching methods, recruitment and supervision of the civilian instructional staff and civilian staff of the support services at the academy. In net, therefore, the director will have overall responsibility for educational work at all levels in the department. He will be the representative of the chief of personnel in all contacts with educational institutions such as those involved in the implementing of the remedial education programs recommended in this report, and will coordinate all programs conducted in cooperation with other agencies, such as the John Jay College and department of personnel. It is anticipated that the personal qualities of the director and his professional reputation will be a key factor in attracting civilian instructors of outstanding qualifications to the academy. In accomplishing his mission, the director will work on a basis of mutual respect with COPA and other unit commanders in the department, subject to broad policy guidelines laid down by the police commissioner and implemented by the chief inspector and the chief of personnel. The organizational chart shows the recommended relationship between the chief of personnel, the director of education and training, and COPA.


RECOMMENDED ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE
PERSONNEL AND STAFF SERVICES BUREAU
CHIEF OF PERSONNEL
DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION AND TRAINING
C. O. P. A.

Chapter 6. Critical Aspects of the Total Education Experience for the Recruits

6.1 Education of the Recruit To Respond to Modern Crises

The staff of this research project has accepted the premise that the training process for recruits must become much more than a training process—it must become a total educational experience. To this end, the new recruit curriculum has been structured as a series of varied educational situations through which the recruit is effectively prepared for the type of crises in which he will be involved as a law enforcement officer. The term crisis should not be taken in a narrow sense of major riot-type situations, but more as a description of the variety of continuing small crises encountered on the street. Some of these may escalate but most will not. Whether they escalate or not will depend, in part, upon the kind of education and training the recruit and his more experienced fellow officers have received. The Kerner Commission, after reviewing the recent experiences in America with largescale disorders, called attention to the basic causes which were seen to have both historical and contemporary dimensions. In the discussion by the Commission of "what can be done" attention was focused on the police in the community. The Commission eloquently described the problems faced by the policeman in the modern urban community when it said:

> His role is already one of the most difficult in our society. He must deal directly with a range of problems and people that test his patience, ingenuity, character and courage in ways that few of us are ever tested. Without positive leadership, goals, operational guidance and public support the individual policeman can only feel victimized. . . .

The Commission recommended police-training guidelines in a number of areas, such as handling of domestic disputes, when to arrest, the use of "stop and frisk" techniques, safeguarding of constitutional rights, and justifiable use of force. The Commission also insisted that training must include all levels of personnel within the police agency, especially commanders, and that training should be a continuing process. In this regard the Kerner Commission reinforced the training recommendations made by the President's Commission a year earlier where similar emphasis was placed upon the need to prepare recruits to exercise discretion properly and to understand the community and the role of the police. Particular emphasis was placed on the use of teaching techniques such as problem-solving seminars. The new curriculum for recruits, presented in section 5.1 of chapter 5, provides implementation of these recommendations.

The police training system, faced with the necessity to prepare recruits to cope with the unique complexities outlined above, finds itself working with an in-put of young men and women who are themselves creatures of the urban crisis. Just as colleges have been forced to adopt new concepts of admissions and new educational policies in order to continue to perform their appropriate role in urban society, so the police training system should respond in an analogous manner. The sensitivities and insensitivities of minority and majority groups are carried into the recruit school by the recruits. To weld a recruit group into a body capable and willing to respond to command is no longer attainable through a program of close order drill and physical training. The recruit school of the New York City Police Department has long been distinguished for the excellence of its technical curriculum. This project has sought to add an excellence in the total educational process. To do this requires an interacting system of curriculum, instructional staff, support services and continuing commitment by the department itself to the goals of the educational process.

6.2 Significance of the Five Phases of the New Curriculum

The new curriculum, as outlined in section 5.1 of chapter 5, provides for five phases during the 18 weeks of the course. Some comments on the significance of the phases as distinguished from the operational aspects considered in the previous chapter are in order. Again, the importance of the conceptual framework of the curriculum must be emphasized. The curriculum is a whole; it is interrelated, and interacts with other aspects of the recommendations of this project. The new curriculum is an instrument designed to provide the total educational experience which the recruit now requires. It is an instrument which, like many educational instruments, depends in the first instance upon the competence and dedication of the teaching staff for its success. It is for this reason *that the previous chapter stressed the importance* of further dignifying, and, in a practical sense, making the assignment to the instructional function of members of the department more attractive. This is also the reason why the police-civilian staff mix has been so strongly recommended. This recommendation is not merely because of specialized competence possessed by civilians, but because interaction is necessary. The implementation of this interaction, as outlined in section 5.5 of the previous chapter, will be facilitated by specific responsibilities assigned to the director of education and training.

It should be noted that in phase I, consisting of 4 weeks, the recruit will continue to wear civilian clothing and will not be issued firearms. This procedure will assist in identifying phase I as an educational orientation and preparation phase in which the transition from civilian to law enforcement officer will begin. At the present time, there is no transition; there is little preparation; the young man or woman is issued a uniform and firearm almost immediately after appointment. This is not a very perceptive procedure. In phase I the educational level of the recruit will be determined through appropriate tests. It is explicit in the recommendations of this project that something will be "done about" the results of such tests. They are not merely for statistical purposes. If the tests reveal remedial needs are in order, then the support services at the Police Academy will take a hand. On the one side, it makes good sense to "save" for the police service as many recruits as possible by bringing them up to minimum standards through remedial work, if need be. On the other hand, it makes equally good sense to separate from the police services those recruits who cannot "make it," even with reasonable remedial support.

While still working within the essentially educational atmosphere of phase I, the recruit will be introduced to knowledge which will assist in developing individual and interpersonal human skills. These areas of knowledge are three: moral principles, urban environment, and the behavioral and social sciences. The discussion of moral principles governing human behavior will orient the recruit to the basic ethical underpinning of organized society.

The urban environment unit will focus upon the historical, social, and political aspects of democracy as exemplified in the development of New York City. This unit will provide the opportunity to lay the essential foundation for respect for all people and to make vital for the recruit the historical perspective necessary for an understanding of contemporary urban problems. Such a foundation will provide a base for the other aspects of the curriculum which focus on civil rights.

The behavioral and social sciences unit will show the recruit that modern scientific thought has relevance to law enforcement. The recruit will be introduced to criminology and social psychology. There are two aspects of the behavioral and social sciences unit which are critical and demand its introduction early in the recruits' training process. In the first place, the concept of professionalization of police, a concept to which much lip service has been given, calls for the use of professional knowledge; that is, scientific knowledge. The recruit should see that scientific knowledge has relevance to law enforcement. Second, a thoroughly practical consideration is involved. Many recruits will wish to take advantage of higher educational opportunities for which certain aspects of the recruit curriculum may be accepted for collegiate credit. For example, the John Jay College of Criminal Justice of the City University of New York, continuing a policy initiated with the affiliation, for educational purposes, of the police academy with the city college in 1954, grants up to 10 college credits for successful completion of the recruit training school curriculum. The strengthening and professionali-

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zation of this curriculum will continue to provide justification for this educational policy. It is obvious that any deterioration in the quality of the curriculum will bring into jeopardy the granting of academic credit. Again, this is an example of the interaction between components of this project's recommendations. In section 12.4 of chapter 12 a set of recommendations is made in respect to mandatory collegiate educational requirements for members of the department. The 10 credits earned by virtue of successful completion of the recruit training curriculum is an important leg up on the 64 credits required for the associate degree and the 128 for the baccalaureate degree.

In phase I the recruit is introduced to two basic law units; one concerned with the entire criminal justice process and the other with aspects of the New York penal law. These are essentially orientation units. The last academic unit is an orientation to the New York City Police Department in terms of its functions and structure. The last unit in phase I is physical conditioning. The need for this, in light of the current policies governing the physical standards qualifying an individual for appointment to the department, is considered in section 10.1 of chapter 10. For an increasing number of recruits it would appear that, along with their fellow Americans, their muscles are underdeveloped and their weight is overdeveloped. Hence, the first course unit in physical training is essentially calisthenics, boxing, and first aid. In net, therefore, during 150 hours of phase I, the recruit is prepared to begin his work as a professional.

In phase II the bulk of the traditional components of a curriculum are introduced. Hence, phase II is called professionalization. It lasts 8 weeks or 320 hours. During this phase the recruit is uniformed and is issued firearms after successful completion of firearms training in the fourth, fifth, or sixth week of the training cycle. He is also introduced to the basic police techniques and is sent into the field for 40 hours to perform basic patrol under supervision of the group leaders and escort training officers. The operational aspects of the innovative concept of escort training have been discussed in section 5.3 of chapter 5. Phase II introduces a unit in criminalistics focusing upon crime scene operations and the responsibility of the patrolman in the safeguarding of evidence. A 70-hour unit in law is included with moot court and legal seminars. The orientation to the behavioral and social sciences in phase II is at the applied level, consisting of applied criminology and applied social psychology. These units are built upon the principles developed in phase I. Ethical relationships and intergroup tensions will be examined as aspects of applied social psychology. In phase II the characteristics of the physical education unit changes; it is now physical training and police techniques. An intensive block of 72 hours is devoted to calisthenics, infantry drill, unarmed defense, search and frisk, baton drill, and riot control. This physical training prepares the recruit to function in the field. Throughout phase II the emphasis is upon intensive professionalization with, however, continuing emphasis upon the scientific base and with continued utilization of police-civilian instructional mix.

Phase III is 2 weeks, 80 hours, of field experience; the recruit will perform the duties of a probationary patrolman in patrol precincts, and also in specialized units. It should be noted that this field experience is subsequent to the earlier 1 week in the field. Thus, the 2 weeks' experience would normally come during the 12th to 14th weeks of the curriculum. The uniquely difficult problem of carrying out a meaningful field experience unit is solved by employing an escort training technique. Again, interaction is the key word. Not only does the recruit work together with a selected escort officer, thereby assuring his exposure to the "best of the force," but in turn a cadre of training patrolmen is developed. It is anticipated that such a cadre will provide a much-needed reservoir of new personnel for the more advanced training assignments within the department.

An unusual feature of the new recruit curriculum is the concept embodied in phase IV, a phase consisting of 3 weeks, 120 hours. The staff of the research project has been deeply impressed by the need to bring the recruits back into the Police Academy after the 3 weeks in the field (the I week in basic patrol and the 2 weeks in phase III). If the recruit curriculum is to be a total educational experience, then the experiences of the recruits in the field must be evaluated. The street is the great learning laboratory, but unless the recruit comes back from the laboratory he can learn the wrong things. It is a regrettable fact that the recruit under present policies often is deeply influenced by the attitudes of the poorest representatives of the department. Testimony suggests that recruits frequently are urged in the field to "unlearn" what the academy has taught them. This does not suggest so much that they have learned the wrong things but rather that some field practices and attitudes are wrong. It is the desire of the research staff to assure the recruits a period of retraining, reevaluation, and thoughtful review of their experiences in the field.

The educational issues here are twofold—on the one hand, to guarantee feedback to the teaching staff of the academy so as to "force" them to confirm their teachings and justify them and, on the other hand, to allow the recruit to think and talk about his personal reaction to the job to which he has committed the next 20 years or more of his life. Therefore, phase IV includes an ethics unit, a civil rights unit, a set of dramatizations, a free discussion seminar and, at the more earthy level, a review of combat firing and unarmed defense techniques. The relevance of dramatization techniques as an educational device is considered in detail in section 7.3 of chapter 7. The department has experimented with dramatizations and they have proven themselves. The free discussion seminar is an innovative concept. This unit of 6 hours will be conducted by the recruits themselves for themselves and involves a self-critique of the training and field experiences. In the desire to provide the maximum of interaction the recommended new curriculum includes this seminar as a device to remain sensitive to recruit reactions. Phase V at the very end, (1 week, 40 hours), will involve orientation to permanent command. Here the group leaders, in cooperation with escort officers assigned to the precinct where the recruit will assume his normal assignment, will ease the final maturing process for the recruit. (Evidence suggests that the majority of probationary policemen will serve for many years at the precinct of initial assignment.)

6.3 Remedial and Accelerated Learning Processes for the Recruit

Traditionally, policy in the Police Academy has been to dismiss from the department those probationary policemen whose academic averages in the recruit training program fall below the currently established minimum average. This average has varied from time to time. In the implementation of this policy, some recruits with a marginal performance record have been required to repeat parts of the curriculum and, therefore, to remain in the academy for a longer period before being graduated. Most recently, however, no recruits have been dropped for academic weakness. This does not necessarily suggest that there has been a quality improvement. In fact, the evidence presented in chapter 2 suggests that there has been a quality deterioration. From the educational point of view, it is undesirable to have a policy which does not maintain academic standards of achievement. The value of competitive accomplishment on the part of recruits would be lost if it should become evident that it may be possible to pass through the recruit curriculum with little effort.

Minimum passing grades in the academic subjects should be established and enforced. These would be standards similar to those applied in a community college, that is, a minimum passing grade of 70 percent, in the academic tests, all of which would require acceptable levels of communication skills. For flexibility, a brief period of special tutoring might be given to recruits who fail to attain the minimum academic grade (providing they are acceptable in all other respects) after which they would be retested. In the firearms and physical training components of the curriculum appropriate standards would be enforced. It is well to bear in mind that the effective recruitment and professional development of an instructional staff with a police-civilian mix will require the maintenance of standards of academic achievement. It will not be possible to attract the kind of civilian teaching staff which the proposed new educational system for the department requires unless standards are maintained. A perfunctory procedure whereby recruits pass through course units without an achievement challenge will not attract good teachers. At the same time, this report has recommended a support service at the police academy to provide remedial education resources. Section 11.2 of chapter 11 outlines the remedial education services and indicates that the direction of this resource is to be one of the responsibilities of the director of education and training. It is felt, on the basis of a somewhat analogous experience in the City University of New York with the SEEK program and the college discovery program, that almost all recruits should respond effectively to remedial education. Of course, limits must be placed on the amount of such remedial education and the degree to which graduation from the academy may be delayed because of remedial needs. In general, it is anticipated that the remedial education can be provided during hours beyond those of the recruit curriculum, for example, in late afternoon, early evening, or on Saturdays.

In the evaluation of new methods of teaching discussed in section 5.4 of chapter 5, one of the major considerations was the relevance of such new teaching methods in the structuring of an accelerated learning process. At the same time that provision must be made for those recruits requiring remedial education there should be provision for those capable of moving more rapidly through selected topics in the curriculum. Such an accelerated learning process can be implemented through the new programed instructional methods (PI), film loops, and the use of computer assisted instructional methods (CAI). As suggested in chapter 5, PI and CAI are methods which lend themselves to teaching situations calling for specific factual knowledge and a how-to-do type of understanding. There are many aspects of recruit instruction which require the imparting of this type of knowledge, and film loops, PI, and CAI techniques are appropriate. For example, departmental organization, procedures, certain aspects of the law, certain accepted field practices and the like, are sufficiently clear cut to lend themselves to fixed formats. It is one of the major recommendations of this report that funding be obtained from governmental agencies and/or private foundations to develop training materials of these three types. Clearly, this would be a major effort to be undertaken experimentally in limited areas and to be introduced progressively throughout the curriculum as the experiment justifies itself. The supervision and development of such materials would be a major function of the educational materials development unit at the academy. This proposed new unit is discussed in section 11.3 of chapter 11.

In net, therefore, it will be some time, even under favorable conditions, before an accelerated learning process can be really effective since the assumption is made that acceleration will be accomplished primarily through the availability to the recruit of PI, CAI, and film loop materials. It is recommended, however, that a commitment be made to seek resources for the development of these materials. Obviously, the availability of such materials will require rooms at the Police Academy to be set aside for the use of CAI equipment and film loops. In the case of PI, these materials can, of course, be loaned to the students through the existing Police Academy library. It is premature to specify what degree of acceleration would be possible, but scattered evidence, which has been examined by members of this research staff, would suggest a saving of about 10 percent or 72 hours maximum for the most competent recruits. This would permit experimental work with a selected group in terms of field problems, greater depth in group discussion, and the assignment of special tasks. It is felt that this kind of potential would enhance the competitive spirit within the recruit classes and upgrade the entire educational atmosphere.

6.4 Humanistic Aspects of the Training Process

The report of the Task Force on the Police emphasized that their call for major changes in police leadership, personnel, training, and organization did not mean the current leadership is not capable, but rather "that the traditional attitude of the police leadership toward their own function will have to be altered." It is in this spirit that this chapter has examined critical aspects of the total educational experience for the recruit. One final aspect of this experience may be designated personal. This is a far broader concept than the mere instruction in "human relationships" or "intergroup relationships." The personal aspect stresses what the educational experience does for the recruit as a person. Essentially, the difference between training and education is to be found in the recognition of training as a skill and attitude development process needed to make it possible for a person to perform a task of varying complexity. In other words, training is task oriented. Many aspects of what a police officer needs to know involve the training for tasks concept. On the other hand, an educated man, as has been said, "has developed his capacity to judge the worth, the performance, and the excellence of human action." It would appear that the future of law enforcement and the kind of leadership required for command during the years to come necessitate exposure of the recruit from the very beginning to the kind of educational experience on which he can build and which will make him an "educated man." It has long since been recognized that there is no dichotomy between being an educated man and a good police officer. The distinguished record of literally hundreds of members of the department with educational achievement of the highest quality demonstrates this point. In section 12.5 of chapter 12 the need to maintain educational momentum is stressed. The concern in this chapter has been to emphasize the need to begin correctly so that the recruit will be pointed down the road that his career will require for success in the highest command levels that lie ahead.

One of the consultants to this project has pointed out that "despite the hue and cry for the structuring of model lessons, police administrators charged with training would probably be better advised to turn their efforts to the major need for the more desirable goal of restructuring the curriculum content and training technology." As the Task Force on the Police phrased it,

> Training will have to reflect the importance of trying to deal in an adequate way with the function of the police officer in sensitive situations * * * and do so in a way which supports his professional identity. * * * Current training programs, for the most part, prepare an officer to perform police work mechanically, but do not prepare him to understand his community, the police role, or the imperfections of the criminal justice system. * * * No person, regardless of his individual qualifications, is prepared to perform police work on native ability alone.

The traditional educational practices at the academy, and at most police training facilities throughout the country, require a police officer assigned to the academy to teach many subjects, perhaps the entire academic curriculum, to a class of recruits. This pattern has been discussed in chapter 4 where it was recognized that frequent changes in police personnel assigned as instructors and the pervasive influence of the lesson plan concept have resulted in an unsatisfactory educational situation. The personal values implicit in education are lost. Observation by members of the research staff of this project has confirmed the uneven quality of the teaching process which is a natural consequence of the varying competence of the instructors in specific topics. It is naive to assume that the provision of a lesson plan will meet these inadequacies. In practice, what happens is that the instructor will simply lead the recruits point by point through the lesson plan in a mechanical fashion. However, in areas where the instructor has specific competence or interest his lectures will come alive. The concept that one police instructor will teach his recruit class all of the academic subjects is reminiscent of the one room schoolhouse. The concept of identifying the police instructor as a group leader who will coordinate, lead and instruct in selected areas of the curriculum will produce a happier instructor and overcome much of the present reluctance to accept an instructional assignment to the academy.

The existing recruit program, as discussed in chapter 4, provides the recruit with a huge pile of mimeographed course materials which is supplemented by four required readings in matters dealing essentially with race relationships. It is hoped that with the implementation of the recommended new educational structure that a substantial portion of the mimeographed materials can be replaced by traditional textbooks in certain of the academic subjects and that members of the police-civilian instructional staff will prepare additional texts in their own specialties. Considerable stress should be placed on this point as a device to enhance the status of the instructional staff and to provide incentives for individual instructors similar to those experienced in collegiate educational institutions. Certainly as far as the civilian instructional staff is concerned, publication will be a requirement in terms of their retention and promotion. Historically, police instructors assigned to the academy have not felt encouraged to contribute personal effort in the area of writing and publication. This has arisen from two major identifiable causes; one, a workload substantially heavier than the traditional academic workload and also a feeling, whether justified or not, that such scholarly activity is not encouraged. It is perhaps relevant to point out that several former members of the academy instructional staff have, upon retirement, contributed to the literature in a distinguished fashion. These talents should not be lost while the officer is a member of the department. It is not unreasonable to hope that the interaction between recruits and instructors, together with positive encouragement for scholarly research and publication, will produce a variety of instructional materials for use in the recruit curriculum.

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Chapter 7. Behavioral and Social Sciences in the Education and Training Programs

7.1 The Relationship of "How To Do" to "Why" Knowledge for a Policeman

The President's Commission recommended that "all training programs should provide instruction on subjects that prepare recruits to exercise discretion properly, and to understand the community, the role of the police, and what the criminal justice system can and cannot do." It is generally recognized that police training, particularly at the recruit level, has been dominated by the teaching of "how to do" and that the "why" has not been taught as effectively. Of course, instruction in "how to do" presents less of a teaching challenge and is handled more easily by the personnel traditionally assigned to the instruction process in a police academy. One of the most difficult problems in the development of a new curriculum for recruit training is a proper balance between the detailed complex of "how to do" knowledge required by the police officer and a depth of understanding on the "why" level needed for the effective implementation of the first type of knowledge. As the nature of the police task in contemporary society has been intensively studied, the dichotomy between these two types of knowledge has been sharpened. The new curriculum for recruits presented in chapter 5 is designed to balance appropriate attention to techniques, regulations, and procedures with an understanding of the role of law enforcement, intergroup relations and human behavior such as will be encountered by the police officer on the street.

The Task Force on the Police of the President's Commission has identified the wide range of activities carried out by the police in modern society. Consistent with the Task Force findings, chapter 3 of this present report has documented the fact that an overwhelming proportion of all the "work" performed by the police officer does not relate to crimes, but rather to "services." The increasing recognition of this fact by police administrators has meant that modern curriculum design, especially in the recruit school, requires substantial units in the behavioral and social sciences. It is in these areas that the President's Commission has recommended the use of professional educators and civilian experts to teach specialized courses. In addition the Commission has written: "recognized teaching techniques, such as problem-solving seminars, should be incorporated into training programs." Essentially, these recommendations, as well as the new recruit curriculum proposed by the staff of this project, make sense on two fronts. In the first place, the police officer needs to know the "why" of social structure, behavior patterns, and community responses. In the second place, expertise for teaching in these areas generally rests with police instructors, but requires the infusion of civilian instructors with specialized knowledge and teaching abilities. Thus, as discussed in section 5.2 of chapter 5, specific recommendations have been made for the introduction of behavioral and social science specialists into the teaching staff of the Police Academy.

None of the efforts discussed above can be anything but a first attempt to assist the new police officer in structuring appropriate responses to the vast complex of situations which will face him when working in the field. The Task Force on the Police has said:

> It is obviously difficult and often impossible for police officers to respond in an appropriate manner to the numerous incidents called to their attention. They are under constant pressure * * * to handle a volume of cases that is beyond their capacity * * *. They lack adequate training with respect to some of the more complex social problems. And there has been little effort to provide individual officers with the guidelines which they require if they are expected to make more effective and judicious decisions in disposing of

the incidents which come to their attention. In the absence of adequate resources, training, and guidance, the tendency is for individual police officers to attempt to meet largely by improvisation the varied demands made upon them.

7.2 Effective Teaching and Learning Respect for All People

One of the critical aspects of the role of the police in the contemporary urban society has been described as "human relations" or "intergroup relations." These terms are too restrictive in the sense that they have been, in most police training curriculums, merely inserted components rather than a continuing thread in the entire training process. Thus division IV of the present recruit training curriculum at the New York City Police Academy consists of 65 hours of instruction in the general topic "The Police Role in Human and Race Relations." This unit is made up of 12 components ranging from psychology of the police, crime and delinquency causes, the Constitution and due process, through police ethics and the history of the Negro in America and Puerto Rican culture and customs. Two consultants to the project who reviewed the present curriculum in the area of human and race relations have recognized that it is essentially aimed at influencing attitudes. There is a need, therefore, to bring to bear a more organized approach to the subject so that the Police Academy role is not limited, circumscribed, and routine, but rather becomes exploratory and creative.

As the most visible representative of the system from which minority groups are demanding fair treatment and equal opportunity, a police agency requires the achievement and maintenance of good police-community relations. In the New York Police Department outstanding efforts in this direction have long been made and the continuation and strengthening of these programs is a commitment on the part of the police department. It is clearly recognized that, in the words of the Task Force on the Police—

> Police-community relationships have a direct bearing on the character of life in our cities and on the community's ability to maintain stability and to solve its problems. At the same time, the police department's capacity to deal with crime depends to a large extent upon its relationship with the citizenry.

The aspect of these issues which has been addressed in this project is the education of the recruit, an education which should attempt to engender respect for all people. To successfully instill that respect, two goals must be attained: (1) a sound grounding in behavioral and social sciences which will provide a historical, psychological, and sociological understanding of the people of the city of New York and, (2) the conceptualization of a direct relationship between this understanding and the regulations, procedures and policies of the department as implemented in the field. The recommended new curriculum addresses itself to the first goal in phase I, with a course unit of 20 hours devoted to the urban environment and a course unit of 35 hours providing an introduction to criminology and social psychology. At the same time, the recruit will be exposed to a 4-hour unit on the moral principles governing human behavior. These educational units, taught by civilian specialists and police department chaplains, will assist in orienting and preparing the recruit for phase II, the professionalization phase. In this phase the behavioral and social sciences are viewed in their applied context. Thus, 10 hours are devoted to applied criminology and 10 hours to applied social, psychological, and ethical relationships, and intergroup tensions. Following the recruit's experience in the field, where the specific significance of interpersonal relationships should become clear, he is given 6 hours in phase IV devoted to the moral imperative, an ethics unit, as well as a course unit of 30 hours in human behavior and civil rights, which is intended as a sociopsychological view of social forces impacting upon law enforcement in the New York City community. In addition, and this is a critical point (the significance of which is discussed below), the teaching process in this area involves individualized interaction with field situations. As one of the consultants has recommended—

> If a fellow could come back with his hands dirty from an experience in the field and sit down in a permissive sort of situation * * * this would turn the teaching process around, so that then you're helping to answer the problems that he has drummed up rather than providing him with answers before he even knows what the problems are.

With the projected ethnic mix in New York City suggested by the statistics included in chapter 1, the intergroup relations problem takes on both an internal and external aspect. That is to say, not only must the new police officer be exposed to instructional units which will deepen his understanding of the people with whom he will interact, but also the police department itself must facilitate the entrance of police candidates from the several minority groups in the community. (Of course, the department does not control the selection process itself which is under the jurisdiction of the department of personnel.) This is a twofold problem, therefore, because the perception of police attitudes by members of the minority groups in the community will affect their willingness to join the police service. In New York City major and successful efforts have been made to recruit from minority groups.[1] While, because of legal limitations, no precise statistics on ethnicity are available, about 20 percent of recent recruit classes would appear to be drawn from the black and Puerto Rican communities. Given the statistical trends in New York City, it may be anticipated that this percentage could reasonably double within the next 5 years. The consultant to this project in the area of minority group attitudes has commented:

> The transition from ghetto to police training facility does not at once erase the negative impressions of the minority group member toward the police establishment.

There is a very brief history of black and Puerto Rican involvement in the law enforcement function, with only a few "police families" from these groups. As a consequence, many minority group members joining the police department tend to lose their "identity shelter." It is anticipated that the new curriculum, together with the recommended support services at the Police Academy discussed in chapter 11, will do much to assist the minority group member in making the transition from ghetto experience to the police service.

It is well to bear in mind that difficulties experienced by some minority group recruits do not arise entirely from educational deficiencies, but from the more subtle inadequacies of the present curriculum. The recommendation that during the 4 weeks of phase I of the recruit curriculum the recruit will continue to wear civilian clothing and will not be issued firearms cannot but be helpful in bridging the transition period. In fact, the successful achievement of the educational objectives of phase I will reinforce the recruits in their decision to become law enforcement officers. The traditional emphasis upon uniforming and equipping imposes an unnecessary strain on the recruit at a particularly difficult period.

Extended research during the work of the President's Commission and the National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders (Kerner Report) has thrown considerable light upon the attitudes of the community toward police. In particular, these reports have documented the suspicions and sensitivities felt in ghetto areas. While it is not possible, from the viewpoint of this project, to assess the relative significance of these attitudes in terms of creating or contributing to civil disturbance, it is accepted policy of the police department and elected public officials, in general, to seek to lessen tensions by positive programs. An indirect indication of attitudes in New York City may be obtained from the work of the civilian complaint review board of the police department. The activities of this board during 1968 showed that the number of Hispanic and Negro complainants was 795, as compared with 716 white complainants. Of the 1,549 complaints, 839 concerned the use of unnecessary force, 211 abuse of authority, 434 discourtesy, and 65 ethnic slur. These data suggest that major emphasis should be given in recruit training to these areas of conflict with the civilian community. The complaints of unnecessary force include such types of force as beating, hitting, hit with stick, kick, punch, twist arm, and pointed gun. The records of the civilian complaint review board in 1968 showed that of the 1,549 complaints received, 845 were found to be unsubstantiated. Nonetheless, the bringing of such charges does suggest an area of interaction with the community for which the new police officer should be prepared. Unfortunately, the mission of police service is one which cannot be carried out to the satisfaction of all members of the community and there are limits to the "teaching away" of these problems. The thrust of the proposed new curriculum for recruits is to contribute to the reduction in the number of incidents where truly improper police behavior has contributed tc community tension.

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[1] For example, of the 7,328 candidates who took the test for patrolman on Jan. 18, 1969, it is estimated that almost 19 percent were black and about 6 percent were of Hispanic background. Fifteen percent of the candidates said they learned of the examination from a friend or relative in the police department.

7.3 Techniques for Personal Involvement in Intergroup Relations

Police work is concerned with people and if police training is properly carried out effectiveness in interpersonal situations will be enhanced. Interpersonal skills cannot be developed through techniques which rely mainly on verbal, didactic, and traditional classroom methodology. At the recruit training level the need for innovative teaching methods is underscored and some of these have been discussed in section 5.4 of chapter 5. With recruits of somewhat lower IQ now entering the police department and with educational experiences in many cases less than optimum, it becomes doubly important to develop the emotional maturity of the recruit.

A number of major experiments in introducing new techniques in intergroup relationship training have been conducted throughout the country. For example, in the Buffalo, N.Y., Police Department, an experimental police-community action program was undertaken in the Quaker Project on Community Conflict. Role playing and critical incident techniques were utilized to identify and dramatize some of the actions and practices which appeared to be provocative in the community. Traditional lecture methods have been found to produce "more resistant heat than instructive light" among the police officers required to attend the lectures. A new approach was tested in which a number of situations of police-community conflict were acted out and evaluated. These included domestic complaints, tavern calls, party brawls, public vulgarity, car stops, accident investigations, and encounters with suspicious loiterers. In all cases these conflict situations were described in a realistic on-the-street context and role-playing situations were developed to simulate police responses.

In New York City's 30th precinct, a project for training police in family crisis intervention has been conducted and has formed the basis for a newly instituted departmentwide training program. The department has issued a training manual on family crisis intervention to guide a program which will introduce this type of training into the recruit curriculum, into unit training for field officers and into certain inservice training courses. The 2-year experimental project conducted in the 30th precinct resulted in more effective police handling of family disputes with increased public confidence in the police and in increased capacity to resolve sensitive problems without resorting to arrest. This program upon which the department is now embarking is not intended to produce specialists in the complex area of family disputes, but rather to "enhance the effectiveness of the general patrol officer by providing him with positive guidelines which will assist him in the exercise of his discretion."

In the experiment in the 30th precinct, three 10-minute scripts based on actual occurrences were prepared by a professional playwright. At the moment in each script which corresponded with the calling in of the police in the original life-event, a pair of officers participating in the training project entered on the stage. From this point on there was no script, but the actors remained in character and improvised their responses to the "intervening officers." Different pairs of officers interacted with the cast on an independent basis and at the end of the practice interventions, all the participants and the audience participated in a structured discussion, under the direction of an experienced psychologist. These techniques of professional dramatizations will be applied in the new department-wide training program in family crisis intervention techniques. While the use of dramatizations, role-playing and discussion groups was initiated in the Police Academy as early as 1953, a combination of circumstances resulted in abandonment of these techniques. In phase IV of the new recruit curriculum dramatizations will provide a major portion of the training evaluation and decisionmaking drills included in this part of the curriculum.

Other aspects of the search for more effective personal involvement in intergroup relations training include the use of film materials. For example, in the production of "The Man in the Middle" under the sponsorship of the John Jay College of Criminal Justice of the City University of New York and the New York Police Academy, major attention was given to interaction with the film and followup through small group discussions. This film argues that people will respond to the police in a crisis situation according to the kind of treatment they have come to expect in noncrisis circumstances. The police officer protects people; he aids people in distress; he advises people; he comforts people; he does his job through people. In short, police work means dealing with people

On a more sophisticated level, appropriate for inservice training, gaming techniques have been applied in the police field. One example is the civil disorder gaming component of the International Police Academy curriculum conducted by the U.S. Department of State for high-ranking foreign police officers. Gaming techniques, as applied at the International Police Academy in Washington, D.C., are an application of methods which have been found effective in military training. All of these educational techniques involve personal involvement of the participant and problem-solving situations.[2] Beyond the scope of this present project are additional techniques of police-community involvement, such as the maintenance of storefront centers manned by specially trained police officers. One example of this is the police-community relation centers operated by the Baltimore, Md., Police Department, which has established four storefront centers manned by the staff of the community relations division.

The implementation of these new educational techniques will require budget support for specialized personnel and resources not now available on the staff of the Police Academy. In part, some of these resources will become available as a consequence of the development of a police-civilian instructional staff with behavioral and social scientists as a part of the full-time teaching staff of the Police Academy. In addition, the staff psychologists in the counseling service as well as the director of education and training will be able to assist. However, with the use of dramatizations, it will be necessary to develop inhouse, or to contract for, play-acting capabilities. In order to test the possibilities of dramatization in the police setting, the staff of this project arranged to have the play "The Man Nobody Saw" presented on May 14, 1969, to a group of commanding officers, police academy instructors, and recruits. This play, based on the findings of the Kerner Commission, was written for general audiences and not specifically for police. Despite this important limitation and the controversial nature of the subject matter (the charge of white racism), the play was found to be a useful device. Almost without exception, the audience at the experimental presentation judged the play to be an effective method for training for all ranks. Personnel attending the showing of the play were asked to respond to a questionnaire. The summary of responses for the invited guests and for recruits is shown in the following two tables.

"THE MAN NOBODY SAW"—INVITED GUESTS
(67 QUESTIONNAIRES RETURNED), MAY 14, 1969

Questionnaire

1. How do you identify yourself? (circle one): (*a*) Black, 9; (*b*) Puerto Rican, 3; (*c*) White, 53; (*d*) Other, 2.

2. Indicate your rank or status (check one):

(*a*) Above the rank of captain	6
(*b*) Captain, lieutenant, or sergeant	40
(*c*) Detective, plainclothesman, patrolman, or policewoman	11
(*d*) Probationary patrolman or police trainee	0
(*e*) Civilian member of the Police Department	2
(*f*) Other (indicate)	8

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Percent Agreeing	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Percent Disagreeing
3. In general, the performance held the interest of the audience and seemed effective in presenting the issues to them	52	15	100	0	0	0
4. The performance showed real people in real situations	22	40	93	5	0	7
5. The message was clear and understandable	28	35	94	2	2	6
6. The play had more impact than the same material on film	36	24	90	7	0	10
7. More impact than a seminar discussion	36	28	96	3	0	4
8. I recommend the play for training:						
(*a*) Superior officers	30	19	73	4	1	7
(*b*) Experienced patrolmen	30	24	81	3	1	5
(*c*) Recruits	34	25	88	5	0	7
(*d*) None—it was unsuitable	2	3	7	3	4	11

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[2] Consult, Ralph J. Butcher, "Civil Disorder Gaming," Research Analysis Corp., 1968.

9. Of the following subjects, circle those which you believe are particularly suitable for plays or playlets as a training device:

(*a*) Arrests/summonses (61 percent)	41
(*b*) Search and frisk (54 percent)	36
(*c*) Aided cases/DOA's (40 percent)	27
(*d*) Strikes, demonstrations (54 percent)	36
(*e*) Family disputes (76 percent)	51
(*f*) Landlord-tenant/other disputes (54 percent)	36
(*g*) Arraignment/trial (52 percent)	35
(*h*) Other (specify (15 percent): Human relations, juvenile problems, conflict situations	10

10. Briefly, what did you observe of the general emotional reaction of the audience? 50 (75 percent) made a comment; 17 (25 percent) no comment. 44 comments (88 percent) were favorable. 6 (12 percent) were unfavorable.

11. Please indicate additional observations, comments, and suggestions on the reverse side. 50 comments were made; 17, no comment.

General Observations on Invited Guests Questionnaire

1. The recruit monitors reported that an estimated 10–15 guests handed in a blank questionnaire or none. A few said they would return the questionnaire by mail.

2. Most chance comments overheard by instructors, superiors, and monitors were very favorable. Only one report came back of an overheard remark by a superior officer (guest) which was derogatory.

Estimated attendance (seating capacity, 480):

Recruits	379
Others	89
Total	468

"THE MAN NOBODY SAW"—RECRUITS
(329 QUESTIONNAIRES RETURNED), MAY 14, 1969
Questionnaire

1. How do you identify yourself? (Circle one): (*a*) Black, 54; (*b*) Puerto Rican, 21; (*c*) White, 236; (*d*) Other, 18.

2. Indicate your rank or status (check one): (*d*) Probationary patrolman or police trainee, 329.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Percent Agreeing	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Percent Disagreeing
3. In general, the performance held the interest of the audience and seemed effective in presenting the issues to them	160	154	96	14	0	4
4. The performance showed real people in real situations	119	156	87	42	6	13
5. The message was clear and understandable	119	165	86	20	4	7
6. The play had more impact than the same material on film	108	145	76	33	2	10
7. More impact than a seminar discussion	116	144	79	41	7	12
8. I recommend the play for training:						
(*a*) Superior officers	66	93	48	20	12	10
(*b*) Experienced patrolmen	63	95	48	17	8	8
(*c*) Recruits	109	112	67	14	6	6
(*d*) None—it was unsuitable	12	22	13	19	27	11

9. Of the following subjects, circle those which you believe are particularly suitable for plays or playlets as a training device:

(*a*) Arrests/summonses (27 percent)	90
(*b*) Search and frisk (22 percent)	73
(*c*) Aided cases/DOA's (26 percent)	70
(*d*) Strikes, demonstrations (47 percent)	121
(*e*) Family disputes (81 percent)	225
(*f*) Landlord-tenant/other disputes (29 percent)	95
(*g*) Arraignment/trial (27 percent)	88
(*h*) Other (specify) (4 percent: Human relations, narcotic addiction, racial problems, handling psychos, walking a post, how a patrolman can be respected again	12

10. Briefly, what did you observe of the general emotional reaction of the audience? 251 (76 percent) made a comment; 78 (24 percent) made no comment; 212 (84 percent) made favorable comments; 39 (16 percent) made unfavorable comments.

11. Please indicate additional observations, comments and suggestions on the reverse side. 249 comments were made: 80, no comments.

General Observations on Recruits Questionnaire

1. The monitors reported that an estimated 10 percent of the recruits did not submit their questionnaires (10 companies—approximately 400 recruits—present).

2. While most chance comments overheard by instructors, superiors, and monitors were favorable, a goodly percent (perhaps 25 percent) made comments like "what * * *" "propaganda," "overdone," "one-sided," etc.

3. Chief of Personnel Elmer C. Cone indicated that this technique is becoming increasingly necessary for recruits and patrolmen; sees less of a need for superiors.

4. Capt. Marvin Boland discussed the exercise with many of the Police Academy instructional staff. While their comments were all favorable, they feel that generally recruits either didn't get the message of this particular play or refused to accept it. They feel that the recruit response was negative in about 40 percent of cases.

Following the play experimentation was conducted with discussion groups in order to test out the techniques which had been found effective in the family crisis intervention project. There emerged a consensus that dramatizations may be recommended as effective teaching devices in such subject areas as family disputes, arrests and summonses, search and frisk, strikes, and demonstrations, landlord-tenant disputes, arraignment and trial, and aided cases. On the basis of the experiment with this particular play, the project consultant in this area wrote:

> The recruits had more difficulty (than the superior officers) in understanding the issues in the play, but the discussion helped clarify the issues * * *. In the hands of unskilled group leaders, the danger of polarization of attitudes is ever present.

It is probable that the effective presentation of dramatizations will require not only trained discussion group leaders, but the professional presentation and staging of the dramatizations themselves. In order to shed some light on the order of magnitude of budget support needed for this proposed innovative program, the Plays for Living, a division of the Family Service Association of America, was asked to suggest a budget. The following represents the budget for one script and 12 performances. The level of cost for Plays for Living is modest for a professional production in New York City.

Estimated budget for a script to be used in police training programs: Commissioning one script, $7,060.

This includes 12 test or showcase performances in the New York area with the Plays for Living Broadway cast.

Details:

Project director	$1,500
Theatrical producer	1,500
Author	1,000
Director	300
Actors	660
Production costs	1,000
Performance royalties	1,100
Total	7,060

Additional performances in New York area, $85 per performance. Publication costs will vary according to the number of scripts required and the extent of the program.

It is recommended that during the 18 weeks of recruit school attendance, each recruit will attend a number of dramatizations of specially scripted material covering a range of content areas, including structured improvisation and role-playing, followed by discussion. Under the supervision of the instructor-discussion leader, recruits will take turns in interacting with the cast in open-ended improvisations of police situations. The cast would then participate in the initial portion of the discussion. This portion of the exercise could take place in groups of about 40 men. Following the departure of the play acting cast, the recruits would divide into two or three small groups, each with its own discussion leader. Topics to be included are: family disputes, involving different ethnic groups; strikes and demonstrations; disputes, landlord-tenant; storekeeper-customer; aided cases, psychos; suicide attempt; search and frisk; summons-arrest, arraignment-trial. Each script should include material on legal provisions, departmental rules, and psychological and social aspects. Some of the topics would benefit from participation of a professional resource in the person of a psychiatrist, counselor psychologist, lawyer, probation officer, or city official. Some presentations could be supplemented by film and slide material. All dramatizations should be professionally written, directed, and acted.

In addition to the dramatization-discussion portion of the recruit curriculum, each recruit would participate in another small group session as part of phase IV. This session would be unstructured by stimulus material, but would afford an opportunity to review the recruits' experiences in the field, and to integrate that experience with the experience in the Police Academy. These sessions would afford a unique opportunity for recruits to articulate their professional growth and its effect on them. In part under the trained leadership of an experienced instructor and in part by recruits alone, the participants would be able to explicate their preconceptions of what it means to become a patrolman and integrate a different, more realistic role-model. The transition from the culture-hero lawman of popular mythology to the sober realities of daily police work entails a yielding up of illusions which is often accompanied by decrement of self-esteem and reaction formations of cynicism. The unique innovative training techniques will facilitate that transition.

Dramatization techniques are not limited to recruits. In fact, effective techniques in communicating intergroup issues are even more necessary in inservice training. The teaching of intergroup issues is uniquely sensitive if not effectively handled at the level of superior officers. It is commonplace to note that the patrol sergeant is a key man in the functioning of the department, in the field training of officers, and represents the future leadership. Success in negotiating the civil service promotion ladder, given present examining methods, insures mastery only of theoretical and verbal material. But supervision requires a high order of interpersonal skill. In addition, the patrol sergeant is called upon to deal directly with the public, often in sensitive and critical situations. The demonstration presentation of "The Man Nobody Saw" underscored that the training function of superior officers is not sufficiently appreciated nor is its implementation fully understood. It is therefore recommended that the Supervisory Practices and Techniques Course (for new sergeants and eligibles) be supplemented by an initial phase of meetings structured around three playlets involving supervisory, disciplinary and complaint investigating situations. For the following 16 weeks, members of this course would return to the Police Academy one day a week to participate in the training of recruits. They would lead the small group discussions after sitting in on the playlets with the recruits; they would lead a small group of another recruit class in the shorter unstructured session, and they would have their own small group discussion with a specialist in small group training. Thus the new sergeant groups would provide for supervision of the recruit group experience, and also provide an opportunity to compare and examine experiences in making the transition to supervisory status.

Sensitivity training for lieutenants, captains, deputy inspectors, and inspectors is important to police administration as is the training of middle management in business and industry. Superior officers set the emotional and attitudinal tone of their commands. They require good judgment of character and temperament in making assignments. They have on-the-job teaching to do, and they need all their sensitivity and tact in dealing with civic groups. They may not always find it possible to avoid some involvement in the off-the-job problems of their subordinates, when on-the-job performance is affected. These are all issues of psychological and interpersonal import and demand specialized training. Unless subsidized by foundation funds, the week-end institute in a resort setting, the luncheon and dinner meetings by means of which private industry polishes and grooms executives—these are not for the public purse. The basic need for self-encounter in small discussion groups is, however, the same. Three playlets structured around the particular concerns of these levels of police administration would be incorporated in 10 weekly small group sessions, under especially mature and skilled leadership.

Substantial funds will be needed to carry out these dramatizations. It is felt that the suggested programs are worthy of budgetary provision but outside funding may well be a possibility.

7.4 Departmental Support for Individualized Personal Development

Fundamentally, the type of education and training anticipated as a consequence of the curriculum recommendations embodied in this report is intended to affect the individual member of the department as an individual. Not only do police deal with people, police are people. This fact is all too often overlooked and leads to resentment and withdrawal on the part of individual police officers. The unique pressure on the individual when he joins a law enforcement agency produces a gamut of reactions, from confirmed cynicism to dedication of a degree rarely encountered in any other profession. Many police officers approach training in the human relations units of a curriculum as an effort to "brain wash" them and their response is one of protest often expressed in silence. The President's Commission and the Kerner Report, as well as the recent report of the Commission on Violence, have tended, perhaps inevitably, to emphasize the negative aspects of police training and behavior. In the structuring of an appropriate education and training program for the future, it is felt that emphasis must be placed on the positive. Thus the dramatization and small group discussion techniques are recommended as a way to involve the individual police officer and to assist him in participating in the training process. At the same time there are harsh realities experienced in the law enforcement field which require the acceptance by the individual police officer of standards of behavior which in many cases are substantially higher than those of the community at large. In recognition of this reality, it is recommended in the new recruit curriculum that the role of moral principles be explicitly emphasized. Thus in the first phase, a 4-hour unit on the moral principles governing human behavior; and in the final phase a 6-hour unit is included on the moral imperative. These two units will be taught by police chaplains, whose professional expertise is relevant. The chaplains have stressed in discussions with members of the research staff of this project the importance of two expositions to the recruits, one before their field experience and the second after some experience in the field. It is felt that the several chaplains, representing as they do the major religious faiths in the New York community, can help prepare the recruit for the harsh realities of field experience and can also reemphasize moral principles after the recruit has experienced the field experience phase of the recruit curriculum. Unfortunately, it must be recognized that young recruits may observe police practices in the field which do not always conform to the principles learned in the Police Academy. Insofar as this lack of conformity is due to the violation of ethical principles by individual members of the department, the recruit must be reinforced in his personal dedication to the code of ethics. It is anticipated that, with the assistance of the group leaders and the escort officers, the adverse effect on the young recruit of practices sometimes observed in the field may be minimized. It is well to reaffirm that the moral objectives of the education and training program recommended in this report are those identified in the policeman's code of ethics.

The Policeman's Code of Ethics

> As a law enforcement officer, my fundamental duty is to serve mankind; to safeguard lives and property; to protect the innocent against deception, the weak against oppression or intimidation, and the peaceful against violence or disorder; and to respect the constitutional rights of all men to liberty, equality, and justice.
>
> I will keep my private life unsullied as an example to all; maintain courageous calm in the face of danger, scorn, or ridicule; develop self-restraint; and be constantly mindful of the welfare of others. Honest in thought and deed in both my personal and official life, I will be exemplary in obeying the laws of the land and the regulations of my department. Whatever I see or hear of a confidential nature or that is confided to me in my official capacity will be kept ever secret unless revelation is necessary in the performance of my duty.
>
> I will never act officiously or permit personal feelings, prejudices, animosities, or friendships to influence my decisions. With no compromise for crime and with relentless prosecution of criminals, I will enforce the law courteously and appropriately without fear or favor, malice or ill will, never employing unnecessary force or violence, and never accepting gratuities.
>
> I recognize the badge of my office as a symbol of public faith, and I accept it as a public trust to be held so long as I am true to the ethics of the police service. I will constantly strive to achieve these objectives and ideals, dedicating myself before God to my chosen profession—law enforcement.

One of the largely untapped resources in the New York Police Department for implementing the objectives of the education and training program is the several fraternal organizations. A broader conception of the role of such organizations would suggest that many of them could be involved in police-community relations several ways. For example, the identification and pretraining of young men and women who plan to take the patrolman's examination can become a major contribution to improved community police relationships. It is not unreasonable to suggest that persons dedicated to a career in law enforcement would wish to recruit qualified persons for this profession. In other professional areas in society, this is a common experience. If young men and women are to be reached in the recruiting process, the example set by members of their communities already in the police service will be crucial. It is recommended that the department, insofar as appropriate, provide support for the efforts of fraternal organizations to assist in preexamination training. Several fraternal organizations currently undertake such programs in the New York Police Department. One notable example is the preparation course offered by the Guardian Association, in which that group utilizes its headquarters for class sessions. Members of the association, on a voluntary basis, prepare materials and instruct young people planning to take the patrolman's examination. While the Guardian Association is an organization of black policemen, there are no ethnic limitations in terms of participation in the civil service preparation courses offered by the Guardians. Courses taught by members of this association confirm the effectiveness of this type of program in reaching out and helping to bridge the gap between ghetto life experience and the police recruit training process. With the critical need for continued recruiting, it is recommended that the department encourage, as a matter of policy, efforts by fraternal organizations in this area.

TOP 245, under date of May 31, 1968 was issued in an effort to obtain the widest possible response from the department members. The TOP asked for comments and suggestions relevant to the objectives of the project, and 529 responses were obtained. Many of these expressed a deep concern with the unreality of aspects of training and the failure to involve the department as a whole in the education and training process. As a part of this project a training advisory panel was structured, consisting of nine members of the department representative of "middle management" and the patrolman/policewoman rank. On many occasions the members of this panel expressed the view that police officers themselves were not sufficiently committed to the law enforcement profession, but thought of it in terms of a "job." Perhaps involvement, on a voluntary basis, of dedicated individuals working through fraternal organizations will do much in this area.

Chapter 8. How the Law is Taught

8.1 The Dynamics of the Law for the Police

The entire criminal justice system, of which the police is only one element, is a structure of law. The police are in a uniquely difficult position as a part of the criminal justice system since they do not enact the laws they are required to enforce, nor are the police involved in the final disposition of persons they arrest. In the effort to balance effective law enforcement and the protection of the rights of individuals the police often feel that their powers are unjustly circumscribed by a complex of court decisions, often contradictory in nature, and public pressure to modify the traditional legal basis for police action. All surveys of police attitudes have identified impatience with many Supreme Court decisions. At the same time, surveys of citizen attitudes, particularly among low income and disadvantaged groups, reveal a conviction that the police frequently take the law into their own hands and, on occasion, apply the law in a discriminatory manner. The President's Commission has emphasized the importance of effective training of recruits, and the police, in general, in terms of a fuller understanding of the legal powers of the police. The Commission pointed out that "The legal limitations on street policing and the proper use of discretion are rarely stressed."

The Commission also recommended that—

> All training programs should provide instruction on subjects that prepare recruits to exercise discretion properly, and to understand the community, the role of the police and what the criminal justice system can and cannot do. Professional educators and civilian experts should be used to teach specialized courses, law and psychology, for example.

Discussions with members of the police department, particularly lieutenants and sergeants serving in patrol precincts, indicated a widespread feeling that recruits were completing Police Academy training without adequate instruction in the law from the point of view of the police officer in the field. Interviews with a sample of recruits also confirmed this view. Members of the department currently teaching at the academy also emphasized that the curriculum in law should be as realistic as possible. The need to stress those topics in the legal curriculum which are most commonly needed by the officer on patrol was a recurring theme. These topics included the law of arrest, the use of force, disorderly conduct, the crimes of burglary, robbery, larceny, and the training necessary to make a good impression in court. Of particular concern was the use of force. Since the change to the new penal law in New York State and the application of the law to situations involving civil disorders, demonstrations, and the college campus tempests, more needs to be done to clearly define the legal limitations that affect the police in relationship to the use of force. Such intensified legal training is needed not only for the recruits but also, on an inservice basis, for all superior officers. In addition, interviews with judges and district attorneys confirmed the need for more training so that police officers can become more capable of presenting their cases in court. Basically, there would appear to be a lack of understanding of the criminal justice system and the roles and responsibilities of the various participants. Familiarity with recent Supreme Court decisions is essential, in particular those decisions relating to search and seizure, confession (including admissions), and the rights of defendants.

At the present time, the instruction in legal subjects in the recruit curriculum consists of 118 hours out of the total of 314 academic hours. The 118 hours are distributed as follows:

Penal law	32
Public morals laws	15
Traffic laws and regulations	14
Arrest procedures	12
Administrative code	10
Summons procedures	8

Law re children	5
Prisoners and court procedures	4
Courts	3
Visit to New York City criminal court	3
Role playing–Testifying in court	3
Constitution and due process	3
Civil law	2
Evidence	2
Family court	1
Film and moot court	1
Total hours	118

An analysis shows that five basic courses are being given:

A criminal justice course.–Consists of about 5 hours with most of the emphasis on the role of the court.

A course on penal statutes.–Approximately 45 hours on the penal law, 14 hours on traffic law and traffic regulations, 5 hours relating to children, 17 hours on the administrative code, and approximately 15 hours on other municipal and miscellaneous laws.

Constitutional law and criminal procedure.–Six hours and this includes 3 hours devoted to the civil rights law.

The law of evidence.–Two hours.

Civil law.–Two hours.

An additional 7 hours is provided for demonstrations and the visit to the New York City criminal court.

Of the 118 hours, 66 constitute division III of the curriculum entitled, "The Police, The Government, The Law." The remaining components of the training in law are distributed through other divisions of the curriculum particularly division II, "Police Procedures and Techniques." As has been noted on several occasions in this report, present practices at the Police Academy involve the use of one instructor teaching the entire academic curriculum to the recruits. The result has been that the specialized knowledge of the recruit instructor varies considerably over the many specialized areas considered in the recruit curriculum. As outlined in chapter 5, the new curriculum for recruits will be taught, in considerable measure, by different instructors both police and civilian. In this way specialized expertise will be brought to bear and the recruits will be exposed to a number of instructors.

8.2 A New Police-Lawyer—Civilian-Lawyer Staff Mix

In the legal area the competence of the instructors is a critical consideration. The ideal teacher of legal subjects, to meet the needs of a police agency, is the police officer who has practical experience coupled with legal training; that is, a police officer who is a lawyer. To meet the needs of the recruit and in-service programs to the Police Academy the number of police officer-lawyers required to accomplish this ideal situation cannot be obtained. It is, therefore, recommended that a legal education unit be established at the Police Academy directed by either a police officer-lawyer (a sergeant or lieutenant), or by a qualified civilian lawyer with expertise in those aspects of law most relevant to police training. It is recommended that all personnel assigned to teach in the legal curriculum be either police officer-lawyers or civilian lawyers. In the case of the latter, they should be compensated in accordance with the salary schedules of the City University of New York and meet the professional requirements for appointment to the several teaching ranks. Initially, it is anticipated that three civilian lawyers should be recruited to handle the new curriculum together with a qualified police-lawyer staff. The legal education unit will perform several duties within the framework of the recruit and inservice educational programs as outlined in the several chapters of this report. These duties are included—

1. To deliver all of the law lectures, both in the recruit school and in the inservice training courses;
2. To keep abreast of the laws through legal research;
3. To work with the legal bureau of the police department in developing training bulletins and circular orders for the entire department;
4. To conduct moot courts in various training courses;
5. To visit the courts at regular intervals; and
6. Through first-hand observation, to develop a training program that will be more meaningful.

8.3 Continuing Education in the Law

In order to implement the educational requirements in the law for the modern police officer it is recommended that the educational units in law specified in the new curriculum for recruits (ch.

5.1), be taught exclusively by members of the legal education unit. Phase I of the new recruit curricumul includes course unit C, "Introduction to the Criminal Justice Procedure," which involves 20 hours of instruction and course unit D, "Selected Aspects of the New York Law," which also involves 20 hours. These two units are part of a group of mini courses in the law to be presented by the professionally skilled instructional staff. Detailed outlines for these courses will be developed through the legal education unit.

Course unit C will cover the following topic: "Criminal Justice." This course will include an overview of the historical background of criminal justice in the United States; the relationship between Federal, State, and local governments; the basics of a law suit (both civil and criminal); an in-depth study of the criminal justice process with emphasis on the role of the police, district attorney judges, jury, legal aid and the defense attorney: 20 hours.

Course unit D will cover the following topic: "Penal law of New York State." Selected statutes from the New York penal law with a concentration on the sections most frequently used by patrolmen and detectives. Included are assault; conspiracy; sex offenses; damage to and intrusion upon property; larceny; robbery; bribery; official misconduct; drug offenses; gambling offenses; offenses against public order; firearms and dangerous weapons; and miscellaneous sections relating to the above if time permits. Emphasis is to be placed on an understanding of the law by considering the statute along with the recommendations made by the committee that drafted the law and the rationale for the adoption of a particular section of law: 20 hours.

Course unit C is particularly appropriate for teaching by a civilian lawyer. Course unit D, however, could be taught by a police-lawyer. The emphasis throughout should be on developing an understanding of the law, its sources and purpose, as opposed to a rote memorization of sections of law for the purpose of enforcement.

In phase II of the new recruit curriculum, which is the professionalization phase, 70 hours are included in course unit D which contains the remaining mini courses in law.

The mini courses are:

1. *"Constitutional law."* An introduction to the Constitution, the Bill of Rights, due process, probable cause, with emphasis on those decisions that have led to current judicial pronouncements on confessions, search and seizure, and the right to counsel. The object of the course is to educate police recruits to be sensitive to their responsibility to enforce the law more effectively while exercising the utmost discretion: 20 hours.

2. *"Traffic law and traffic regulations."*.. The first 3 hours of this 8-hour course should be devoted to the nature of the traffic control function as a part of the police role; traffic enforcement as a chain whose links consist of the legislature; the traffic engineer; the traffic court; the motor vehicle department and the police. Emphasis in the remaining 5 hours should be on the moving violations, driving while intoxicated, and those parking violations that are enforced by the police. The relationship between enforcement and public safety is the overall objective of this course: 8 hours.

3. *"Selected sections of the code of criminal procedure."* With special emphasis on the rights of defendants, the sequence of contacts the accused will experience from the time of arrest to the termination of his case including arrest, use of force, interrogation, the preliminary hearing, grand jury indictment, the trial and the verdict. These 8 hours should be related directly to the 20 hours on criminal justice: 8 hours.

4. *"Selected sections of the administrative code, and the New York City health code."* Most often encountered by patrolmen on precinct patrol: 5 hours.

5. *"Those sections of the penal law and domestic relations law affecting children."* The role of the family court is considered with the various agencies that deal with child welfare (including child abuse) in the city of New York: 5 hours.

6. *"Civil rights law."* With a 3-hour introduction related to the background of American political thought and law as they affect civil rights; 2 hours on Supreme Court decisions on civil rights; and 3 hours on selected sections of the civil rights law which the police are most likely to be called upon to enforce, e.g., equal rights in places of public accommodation and amusement, discrimination by innkeepers and carriers; liability for acts of persons assisting police officers, and other sections of the civil rights law: 8 hours.

7. "*The practical application unit.*" This includes moot court and a visit to the New York City criminal court with an arrangement for the class to remain after the court session for the presiding magistrate to explain the operation of the court and to answer questions from the class about the court and its role in the criminal justice system. Included are a series of three 3-hour seminars at which important legal issues will be discussed by experts including judges, law professors, assistant district attorneys, members of the Legal Aid Society, American Civil Liberties Union, and defense attorneys: 16 hours.

The total instructional hours to be devoted to the law in the new recruit curriculum is 110 hours, a slight reduction from the present allocation of 118 hours. It is felt, however, that the higher level of professional competence achieved through the use of police and civilian specialists, together with advanced methods of teaching, will permit a more effective curriculum without an increase in allocated hours. Moot court, role playing, seminars, motion pictures, guest lecturers, and class discussions will all be used in the legal units of the curriculum. At the present time, straight lecturers are utilized with little or no class participation. Particular attention is called to the final 16 hours in the new recruit curriculum in law. The unit, called "The Practical Application Unit" will include, in addition to a moot court and visits to courts, a series of three 3-hour seminars at which important legal issues will be discussed by experts. It is anticipated that this new curriculum will provide an up-to-date and completely relevant training for the new police officer.

In the inservice area, law lectures are given in the criminal investigation courses for plainclothesmen (a 4-week course) and for detectives (a 3-week course). These courses are designed to train men recently assigned to the Detective Bureau and to develop lists that will be used for the selection of men to work in plainclothes. The in-service training also sponsors a unit training program, a TV presentation which is channeled to all of the precincts and is required watching for all patrolmen in the department. Nine such programs are produced each year. After the program the unit training sergeant reviews the program in the light of local conditions. The unit training sergeants are supplied with lecture material by the inservice training unit at the police academy. Very often these inservice TV programs are directed specifically to some phase of the law. The legal education unit, described above, would be responsible for developing the legal lectures for the CIC courses and also the content of the TV presentations. Arrangements should be made to have the unit training sergeants report to the police academy for a special lecture in advance of any TV programs produced by the legal education unit.

Additional in-service training for patrolmen and detectives is provided in a course known as the patrolman-detective refresher course. This has been a 1-day course given each year focusing on a particular police problem; e.g., community relations in 1968, riot control in 1969.

Inservice training for superior officers is handled in the command A, B, C, and D courses: Command A for above captain; command B for captains; command C for lieutenants; and command D for sergeants.

Command A and B courses have approximately 4 days per year and the C and D courses 1 day per year. Obviously, little time can be devoted to legal topics in these courses.

The inservice training faculty should develop an ongoing course which would include refresher courses for sergeants and lieutenants and a similar inservice course for detectives and detective squad commanders. These courses—one for lieutenants and sergeants and one for detectives—should last for 2 weeks with a total of 40 men in attendance at one time. On a basis of 50 weeks per year, 1,000 detectives and 1,000 sergeants and lieutenants would receive the refresher course. As a result, every lieutenant, sergeant, and detective would attend every 3 years. In the lieutenant and sergeant refresher courses, the role of the lieutenant and sergeant as an instructor of the patrolmen should be emphasized.

The development of the policeman in terms of his attitude to the law, the law breaker, and the community must permeate all parts of the training program, both at the recruit and the inservice level. For a police officer to know the content of the course unit in law is not sufficient; he has to be prepared to put this content into practice—with justice, equity, and compassion.

Chapter 9. Training in Firearms

9.1 Review of Firearms Training

A comprehensive review of police training programs includes not only academic and physical aspects, but firearms training as well. A firearm is a lethal weapon which is at least as dangerous in the hands of an unskilled police officer as it is in the hands of the criminal. A rule worthy of consideration by all police administrators is this: If there are benefits to the officer, to the department, and to the community in arming a police force which outweigh the disadvantages of an armed force and overcome the harm and mischief caused thereby, then that force should be armed. Where the harm is greater than the benefits, that force should not be armed.[1] If the decision is to arm, then the consequences become a responsibility of the administrator. It behooves him to assure that his men are as skilled as possible in the use of their weapons.

Through several centuries the American tradition of carrying revolvers by police officers has been unquestioned. The custom is accepted almost as a social institution by police administrators, courts, and a majority of the public. The functional value of the system is the effectiveness of the arms policy in the maintenance of law and order. But when the functional value is discussed, both the manifest and latent functions must be discussed as well. The manifest function is the obvious result of the system. Obviously, the consequence of arming policemen is that assaults on police officers and crime in general will probably be discouraged by the fear that all policemen have guns and the authority to use them. But the latent function, the unintended, unrecognized consequences of this policy must also be considered. These consequences are the mischief mentioned above.

It is axiomatic that a law enforcement officer must avoid negligence in his work. An officer may have full authority to act (or shoot), but, unless he does so using a reasonable standard of care, he or his agency may be sued and adjudged liable for damages. Inadequate or improper firearms training has been held to be such a lack of reasonable care. To cite one case, a New York City police officer entered a drug store while a holdup was in progress.[2] He announced himself and fired six shots at two robbers at close range. Four shots struck the decedent (who was being held hostage). His executor alleged negligence: the officer had been given firearms training once every 4 months, firing 10 rounds slow fire at a target 60 feet away. There was no training in combat shooting. Negligence was established on the ground that the officer had not received sufficient and proper training in the use of small firearms. The New York City Police Department thereafter revised its firearms curriculum to provide for combat training. This study examines existing firearms training programs of the New York City Police Department, the FBI, and others. Both basic courses for new police recruits and advanced courses for experienced officers are considered. Recommendations are made for new courses, new targets, new scoring qualifications, and new training policies.

Methodology

A variety of methodological approaches were employed in this study. In the discussion on present firearms training programs in New York City and in the FBI, the approach is descriptive, based on empirical considerations over many years of experience and development. Courses and programs were studied, trainees were observed in training, and numerous discussions were held with range officers.[3]

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[1] The harm referred to includes: improper use of firearms by police officers (to commit suicide, shoot their wives and others, commit robberies, lend them to unauthorized persons) and loss of weapons, failure to safeguard revolvers, allowing young children or others to misuse them, accidental shootings, triggering a riot by use of guns (even where their use is legitimate), shooting of innocent bystanders, civil actions against the officer or his department or city. Consult unpublished master's thesis by Marvin Boland, "Should Police Carry Firearms?" The Baruch College, City University of New York, 1969.

[2] *Meistinsky* v. *New York*, 285 Appellate Division 1153 (1955).

Appendix B covering the firearms training programs of 102 police agencies is a comparative study based on an analysis of a survey. This appendix also presents a statistical analysis of the results of firearms training in the New York City Police Department, based on a study of 10 years' records and recent experience. That study is largely diagnostic, theoretical, and experimental.

The result of this effort is a series of suggestions and recommendations arrived at by problem-solving methods, which the research staff believes will lead to an improved firearms training program based on actual police needs, and with secondary byproducts of economies and public acceptance.

The principal tool used in this study was the survey questionnaire (sent to some 425 police agencies). On a personal basis, the firearms officers of the Federal Bureau of Investigation in Washington, D.C., New York City, and Camp Smith, and range officers of the New York City Police Department, Nassau County Police Department, Suffolk County Police Department, the Puerto Rican Police (San Juan), and the Chicago Police Department were the principal collaborators.

The study began with a close look at firearms training practices in the various police agencies: municipal, county, State, and Federal, with a view toward determining what was being done in common, the extent of standardization, kinds of weapons used, amount of classroom and range work, training methods and innovations, training policies and practices, shortcomings, needs, comments, observations, recommendations, and results. The objective was to design model firearms training programs for new recruits and experienced officers which would: (1) meet their needs based on the perils faced on the job; (2) protect the officer and his agency in courts of law in civil cases arising out of firearms use; (3) improve police morale by developing confidence in their ability to use their weapons skillfully; (4) establish standards of proficiency; (5) provide optimum training economically; and (6) gain public approval.

Recruit Firearms Course in the New York City Police Department

The new police recruit in New York City is required to purchase his .38 caliber revolver (Colt or Smith & Wesson, 4-inch barrel) on the day he is sworn into the police department. He is told not to remove it from the holster until scheduled for firearms training and he is forbidden to purchase ammunition for the weapon.

Probationary patrolmen and policewomen receive 56 hours of firearms instruction, firing a minimum of 340 rounds of ammunition. Training commences during the first week and is spread out over 16 weeks. During the warmest 8 months of the year the outdoor range is used with firing at 7-, 15-, and 25-yard target distances. This course is usually given in eight 7-hour sessions. During the winter months instruction is given at an indoor range from the 20-yard line. This course is usually given in two 7-hour sessions and 14 3-hour sessions. New York City Police Department silhouette and bull's-eye targets are used. Training sessions are divided into range classroom instruction and range firing. Approximately 58 percent of the 56 hours (32 hours) is spent in class for demonstrations, discussion of the revolver manual of arms and safety regulations, briefing on the type of firing to be done at that session, and lectures on situational use of the firearms (including legal right and duty), judgment, nomenclature, cleaning and care of the revolver, ballistics, target scoring, and so on. Other matters covered during this period include films (FBI and Duffco), slides, dry firing, inspection of weapons and holsters, registration of trainees and weapons, preparation of forms, question and answer period, and a general critique after firing. During the final classroom session all of these matters are reviewed.

Approximately 42 percent of the 56 hours (24 hours) is spent on the firing range. The first day on the range the recruit must fire a qualifying score on a silhouette target, single action, slow fire, prior to being permitted to carry the revolver and purchase ammunition. The next phase consists of bull's-eye target shooting, single action, in slow, timed, and rapid fire. The final phase is defensive combat training consisting of all positions in the practical pistol course (PPC) from 7-, 15-, and 25-yard distances when at the outdoor range, and point shoulder, barricade, strong and weak hand, single and double action from the 20-yard line when at the indoor range.

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[3] Lt. Francis McGee, firearms officer of the New York City Police Department, Sgt. John Sturch, firearms officer of the Chicago Police Department, and Special Agent Charles Smith, firearms officer of the FBI, were particularly helpful in this study.

There are five qualifications which each recruit must meet before advancing to the next type of firing:

1. The original qualification to wear a loaded revolver. (Single action, 40 rounds, from 20 or 25 silhouette target.)

2. A single action, slow fire score of 60 out of 100 on bull's-eye target (10 rounds from 20 yards indoors, 25 yards outdoors).

3. A single action, timed fire score of 60 out of 100 on bull's-eye target (10 rounds from 20 yards indoors, 25 yards outdoors).

4. A single action combined score of 180 out of a possible 300 slow, timed and rapid fire (30 rounds from 20 yards indoors; outdoors from 25 yards slow and timed, from 15 yards rapid).

5. Ten rounds point shoulder, double action and 10 rounds barricade, single action (strong hand); 14 hits required on a silhouette target (from 15 and 25 yards outdoors and 20 yards indoors).

The typical outdoor range recruit course is as follows:

Session	Number of rounds	Type of firing	Target
1st (25 yards)	40	Slow fire, single action, 10 rounds	Silhouette
		Do	Do.
		Do	Do.
		Do	Do.
		Single action for qualification to carry revolver (entry on PA 12 as per qualification).	
		Preparation of PA 11 and PA 12; registration of revolvers; inspection of holsters; "safety" lecture; nomenclature; cleaning and care of revolver; ballistics, revolver manual; single action lecture.	
2d (25 yards)	60	Slow fire, single action, 10 rounds	Bull's-eye
		Do	Do.
		Do	Do.
		Do	Do.
		Do	Do.
		Do	Do.
		(Revised bull's-eye.) Highest qualifying score recorded on PA 12.	
		Revolver manual; "safety" lecture; stamping equipment; FBI single-action film; lowering of the hammer on a "live" round; single action review lecture.	
3d (25 yards)	60	Time fire, single action, 10 rounds	Bull's-eye
		Do	Do.
		Do	Do.
		Do	Do.
		Highest qualifying score attained recorded on PA 12.	
		Rapid fire, single action, 10 rounds	Do.
		Do	Do.
		Revolver manual; "safety" lecture; review "single" action, instruct "time" fire instruct "rapid" fire.	

Typical outdoor range recruit course—Continued

Session	Number of rounds	Type of firing	Target
4th (25 yards)	60	Rapid fire, single action, 10 rounds	Bull's-eye
		Do	Do.
		Do	Do.
		Highest score attained in this and last session in rapid fire will be recorded on PA 12.	
		Slow fire, single action, 10 rounds	Do.
		Time fire, single action, 10 rounds	Do.
		Rapid fire, single action, 10 rounds	Do.
		Review of "safety"; lowering hammer on a "live" round; Duffco machine; review single action, slow,time, rapid.	
5th:			
(25 yards)	50	Slow fire, single action, 10 rounds	Bull's-eye
		Time fire, single action, 10 rounds	Do.
		Rapid fire, single action, 10 rounds	Do.
		Test in single action, 180 required, record scored on PA 12 and total.	
(15 yards)		Point shoulder, double action, strong hand, supported, 10 rounds	Silhouette
		Point shoulder, double action, strong hand, unsupported, 10 rounds	Do.
		Review of "safety"; revolver manual, review single action, slow, time, rapid; instruct double-action point shoulder; instruct combat load; FBI film on double-action firing.	
6th:			
(15 yards)	70	Point shoulder double action, unsupported, 10 rounds	Silhouette
		Point shoulder double action, unsupported kneeling, 10 rounds	Do.
(25 yards)		Single action, barricade, strong hand, 20 rounds	Do.
		Single action, barricade, weak hand, 10 rounds	Do.
(15 yards)		Point shoulder, double action supported or unsupported (14 hits required—record on PA 12), 10 rounds	Do.
(25 yards)		Single action, barricade, strong hand (14 hits required—record on PA 12), 10 rounds	Do.
		Review of "safety"; review double action, point shoulder, supported and unsupported. and kneeling; review combat load; instruct strong hand and weak hand, barricade shooting.	
7th:			
(7 yards)	50	Police crouch	Silhouette
(15 yards)	30	Double action, point shoulder	Do.
(25 yards)	20	Do	Do.
		Review of "safety"; manual; review police crouch, double action, point shoulder, supported and unsupported; review combat load—unload; review barricade shooting and kneeling position.	
8th (7, 15, 25 yards)	100	Practical revolver course (fired twice)	Silhouette
		Review of all classroom instruction.	

The typical indoor range recruit course is as follows:

Session	Number of Rounds	Type-of-firing	Target
1st (all day)[1]	20	10 slow fire	Silhouette
		Do	Do.
2d	20	Do	Do.
		Do	Do.
3d	20	Do	Reversed bull's-eye
		Do	Bull's-eye
4th	20	Do	Do.
		Do	Do.
5th	20	Do	Do.
		Do	Do.
6th	20	Do	Do.
		Do	Do.
7th	20	10 Time fire	Do.
		Do	Do.
8th	20	10 rapid fire	Do.
		Do	Do.
9th	30	10 rapid fire	Do.
		Do	Do.
		Do	Do.
10th	20	10 strong hand, point shoulder, double action, supported	Silhouette
		10 strong hand, point shoulder, double action, unsupported	Do.
11th	20	Do	Do.
		10 strong hand, single action, barricade	Do.
12th	20	Do	Do.
		10 strong hand, point shoulder, double action, unsupported	Do.
13th	20	10 weak hand, single action, barricade	Do.
		10 slow fire	Bull's-eye
14th	20	10 time fire	Do.
		10 rapid fire	Do.
15th	30	10 slow fire	Do.
		10 time fire	Do.
		10 rapid fire	Do.
		Test 180 required	Do.
16th (all day)[1] test 14 hits	40	10 strong hand, point shoulder, double action, unsupported	Silhouette
		10 strong hand, single action, barricade	Do.
		10 double action, rapid fire cadence	Do.
		Do	Do.

Minimum 340 rounds—All .38 caliber special ammunition.

Analysis of New York City Police Department Recruit Training Course

All subjects related to safe handling, accurate shooting, situational use, use of deadly physical force and care of the service revolver are adequately covered in the classroom. Visual aids, including overhead projectors, film, slides, demonstrations, exhibits and displays, provide a diversified and interesting learning experience geared to the practicalities and realities of real-world situations.

Sufficient firearms practice with the service revolver under close supervision is provided to train most new police recruits to the point where they are proficient in the use of their revolvers and of little danger to themselves and to the citizens of the community. Provision exists for additional training for the few who have difficulty in qualifying. Generally speaking, the course is good, but there is insufficient emphasis on the use of judgment in shooting situations. Recruits may be tested for their knowledge of safety rules and for firearms proficiency, but no adequate method exists to insure that they are able to exercise good judgment in field combat. Since it is difficult to define a terminal performance objective which will insure good judgment and it is expensive to devise a system for the observation of the individual terminal behavior of more than 2,000 recruits a year, an alternative is essential. The answer may be "saturation," meaning such concentration on judgment that the probability of a recruit going through the course with an inadequate understanding and appreciation for this essential is reduced to an absolute minimum. This can be accomplished in four ways:

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[1] All sessions except the 1st and 16th are half-day sessions. The 1st and 16th are whole-day sessions.

1. Greater use of the Duffco films and the production of additional films showing other situations.

2. The use of a device designed to teach decisionmaking in shooting situations. One such system utilizes 8-millimeter colored film in instant-loading cartridges which require no reels, threading, sprockets, or rewinding. A library of film is already available, designed to train police officers in the use of judgment. While this system was evaluated and rejected by the firearms unit of the Police Academy a few years ago, a reevaluation may be in order due to recent technical improvements.

3. Lectures and discussions designed specifically to emphasize the decisionmaking and judgment process (a minimum 30-minute period at every range session).

4. An addition to the rules and procedures requiring the presentation of a report describing the circumstances and the result of the investigation by any precinct experiencing an incident wherein a police officer fired his revolver. (A form is used for this purpose in Chicago, see page 134). Forwarded to the firearms unit, these reports can serve as a valuable source of discussion material and training aids on the use of judgment, as well as providing the means for an evaluation of the training program. Discussion and critique of actual shooting occurrences involving questionable judgment may avoid similar errors by others later on.

The finest firearms training program can be ineffective if competent instructional personnel are not available. Presently, there is inadequate instructor training. It is suggested that all new firearms instructors be given a 10-day range instructors course. The content of such a course is available from the FBI. It may be possible to have range officers trained at FBI ranges where ongoing courses are conducted for FBI range personnel. (As of this writing a 10-day course for firearms instructors is about to be introduced in the New York City Police Department.)

Recruits should not be issued their firearms prior to receiving firearms training.—There are a number of cases on record of recruits who, prior to firearms training, take their revolvers home and accidentally kill or cripple members of their families. These cases often end in civil actions against the city, charging negligence based on improper or incomplete training. In a 4-day period this spring three such cases were reported in the principal case sheets.

In the interest of their own safety, the safety of their familites and the public, and the avoidance of civil suits against the city, it is suggested that new recruits not be armed until they qualify on the range, and not before the fourth week of training in any case. The practice of arming recruits on their first day is often defended by the statement that most recruits have handled guns in the service, or are hunters, and "know" guns. The experience of this department is that these men invariably have the greatest difficulty in firearms training. To admonish recruits against taking their guns out prior to training and not to purchase ammunition is unavailing. The first thing many of them do when they get home is take the revolver out and show it off. Ammunition is as accessible as the closest sporting goods store.

The first qualifying test is a poor basis upon which to arm new men with loaded revolvers. It should be eliminated. The recruit should be armed only when he has passed the entire firearms course (which would include all classroom work). If this is deferred to the fourth week or later, as suggested, he will have had all the necessary background study as well: law, use of force, use of discretion, limitations, and related information. It is generally agreed that single action shooting is a desirable foundation to double action or combat shooting. But the former should be deemphasized somewhat and the latter emphasized more, for single action shooting in combat is rare.

Some of the targets in use are not ideal for beginners. Three targets are suggested: (*a*) The standard police "L" target is acceptable for bull's-eye (single action) shooting. (*b*) A new plain, neutral shade silhouette target with thin scoring ring (not visible to the trainee) should be used for double action practice shooting, see page 124. The scoring ring would be shaped as a milk bottle or bowling pin (as in the Colt T–6, the Colt police silhouette and the U.S. Army "S" targets). This target will permit instructors to observe the performance of recruits while firing. The trainee can also see his hits and make adjustments. This target would not be scored. (*c*) A new plain, neutral shade silhouette combat target similar to the present police academy combat target with the same bottle type scoring configuration described above, see page 125. This target is realistic; it is not possible to observe the strike area of bullets or the scoring "bottle." Such a target would be used for general combat training and qualification.

Qualifications are unrealistic.[4] The present five should be reduced to two, one single action and one double action. The single action test would be 10 rounds slow fire from 20 yards indoors and 25 yards outdoors, with the qualification raised from the present 60 to 65. The test would be given twice on the second day of the firearms training. Those failing would be retested on the third and again on the fourth and fifth days, if necessary. This relatively easy qualifying score will enable almost all new recruits to pass, will raise the minimum proficiency level to a more reasonable standard and will be followed by more stringent requirements in later inservice training. The combat shooting test would be as follows:

(*a*) Twelve rounds from 7 yards (police crouch) in 30 seconds;

(*b*) Twelve rounds from 15 yards (point shoulder supported) in 30 seconds;

(*c*) Twelve rounds from 15 yards (point shoulder unsupported) in 45 seconds;

(d) Twelve rounds from 25 yards (six rounds weak hand barricade and six rounds strong hand barricade) in 60 seconds;

(*e*) Two rounds from 25 yards (kneeling, supported or unsupported) in 5 seconds.

The total would be 50 rounds in 2 minutes and 50 seconds on the new combat target. A score of 75 would be required. The test would be given on the fifth day of training. Those failing to qualify would be required to refire. A second failure should require practice on their own time and retesting during the week following their firearms training week.

On occasions in the past, new recruits were given double action training prior to single action training. This is a poor practice. Not only do most range officers agree that a good single action foundation is desirable for double action proficiency, but if mistakes are made in the initial learning process, or if subject matter is not presented in the proper order, or if bad habits are developed at the outset, a major correctional problem results. Recruits should learn the basic principles of shooting before moving to advanced techniques.

Consideration should be given to instituting a new element in the recruit course. Simulated night firing under conditions where there is minimal danger of accidents is desirable because most occasions for combat shooting occur during periods of dusk or darkness. This can be accomplished by adjusting the lighting at indoor ranges to varying degrees of darkness. It will give the recruit an appreciation of this situation and avoid the surprised confusion he experiences when he finds himself for the first time in a night combat shooting situation and cannot see his gun, much less its sights.

Presently there is one instructor on the firing line for every 10 trainees. This practice could be dangerous and does not allow for individual attention. Most range officers suggest one instructor for every five or six men on the line outdoors and one for three or four indoors.

The system of spreading 56 hours of firearms instruction over 16 weeks is not in the best interests of good firearms training. There is a certain amount of duplication and loss in such a system which could be avoided if all or most training were given intensively on successive days. More than half of all police agencies surveyed, including a number of capital cities, State police agencies and the FBI, provide firearms training all at once (see app. B). The officer in charge of the firearms unit of this department agrees that as much can be achieved in 40 consecutive hours without loss of quality as in 56 hours spread out over 4 months. A recommended new course for recruits is suggested later in this chapter.

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[4] The "Rules and Procedures," chapter 20, paragraph 5.11, mention only one qualification: 60 out of 100 slow fire. For many years, however, there have been five firearms qualifications (as previously indicated).

Inservice Firearms Course in the New York City Police Department

For at least the past 10 years the "Rules and Procedures" have indicated that there are three inservice firearms training sessions each year for all members of the force.[5] Normally the indoor cycles consist of half day sessions which involve check-in, inspection of all firearms and leather equipment, safety lecture and division of the shooting group into two relays. The relay on the line fires 30 rounds single action on a bull's-eye target, slow-timed rapid fire (60 out of 100 slow fire is the qualification). The other relay has lectures and discussions of some aspect of firearms (i.e., combat shooting, shooting under less than ideal conditions with respect to light, visibility, moving target, moving police officer and vehicles, the law on use of deadly force, warning shots, night firing, riots, and demonstrations). Halfway through the session the two relays switch activities.

The outdoor cycles consist of full day sessions where the men are divided into two or more relays of manageable size. After check-in and weapons/leather inspection, the relay on the line fires 200 rounds single and double action with both service and off-duty revolvers on the practical revolver courses. The last 50 rounds are scored (35 hits is the qualification). The other relay (s) have movies, slides, Duffco films, lectures, discussions, and demonstrations. After lunch the relays switch.

Analysis of Inservice Course

On paper, the New York City Police Department has a fine firearms training program for experienced officers. Of the cities studied (see app. B), New York City is above average in the quality of its program. This was not the case, however, from 1966 to early 1969 when much of this training was suspended. All training has now been reinstated. Because this department has such excellent firearms training facilities and a very capable instructional staff, the little inservice training provided meets minimum acceptable standards.

Inservice training has been barely adequate. Three inservice sessions a year are suggested—two half days indoors, and one full day outdoors.—Firearms training should not be interrupted except for urgent crises, and then reinstated as quickly as possible, making up whatever was lost.

No matter how well trained one is in the use of the revolver, proficiency suffers over a period of time if regular practice is not scheduled. Beside the regularly scheduled cyclic training, it is recommended that a location in each borough be made available where members of the force may go on their own time to practice, with ammunition, supervision, and instruction provided by the department. This was formerly a policy, but was discontinued in 1967. It would benefit the weak shooter directly, and the department, the city, and the public indirectly. (NOTE: The chief inspector, director of this project, instituted a voluntary practice program at the outdoor range in July 1969, and the substance of this recommendation was implemented on September 29, 1969.)

Because at any given time as many as 5 percent of police officers' revolvers are not in proper working condition and holsters may be worn or unsafe, it is suggested that if cyclic training is not put on a three-a-year basis, the firearms unit should provide an inspection team to cover all precincts in the city at 8 a.m. and 4 p.m. at least once every 3 months for revolver/holster/ammunition inspection (occasionally bullets are old or saturated with cleaning oil and will not fire).

Because of the importance of judgment in the use of firearms and because a 1968 survey indicated many police officers do not have a good understanding of the law regarding the use of deadly force, it is suggested that lecture/discussion sessions and/or films be used at all cyclic training sessions (minimum of 30 minutes) covering this subject matter. Judgment is at least as important as proficiency with the revolver.

The three targets previously discussed in the section on recruit firearms training should also be used for inservice training: The "L" target for bull's-eye shooting, the plain silhouette with "bottle" scoring ring for double action practice, and the combat silhouette with "bottle" scoring

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[5] "Rules and Procedures," New York City Police Department, ch. 20, par. 5.1.

ring for qualifying on the practical revolver course.

The qualifying scores should be revised. The single action qualification (once a year indoors) would be a combined score of 190 out of 300 with 30 rounds slow-timed-rapid fire instead of the current 180 out of 300. The present qualifying score of 60 on slow fire (which was recommended be raised to 65 for recruit training) would not be required. However, it is suggested that the slow fire score be recorded separately for evaluation purposes.

The new double action qualification (once a year outdoors) would be 75 out of 100 on the same practical revolver course as that described for recruits. Thus, both the recruit and inservice qualifying scores, single and double action, are more demanding, as they should be. They are, however, considered to be reasonable.

The philosophy behind the qualification scores should be stated as department policy, reading as follows:

> Department experience indicates that these qualification scores are necessary minimums. Proficiency below this level is dangerous in that there is good reason to believe that such persons lack reasonable effectiveness in marksmanship and safety for bystanders.

In addition to the two qualification tests, the following is suggested at every shooting session, indoors and outdoors. The first 10 rounds fired are to be slow fire, single action from 20 to 25 yards, and scored. This score is important for several reasons: (*a*) It simulates shooting under actual combat in the sense that these shots are fired before practice after a long period of no firearms training (in combat the first six shots usually tell the whole story—life or death); (*b*) the score will indicate the extent of loss of proficiency since the last training session after practice; (*c*) this technique increases motivation and provides an excellent training device.

To the special designations of "marksman," "sharpshooter," and "expert," the additional designation "distinguished expert" should be added. This would require a total score of 290 or higher (out of 300) in combined slow, timed, and rapid fire (single action), plus 100 out of 100 on the double action course (50 round PRC). It is estimated that fewer than 200 members of the department would so qualify, but the Los Angeles Police Department and other police agencies that have this designation report that the designation provides motivation, interest, and incentive; instills a spirit of competition; and that the special insignia is worn proudly. This addition would cost the department nothing. It should be noted that the present three designations are all based on single action shooting only, which policy is a carryover from the time when there was no combat course. The latter is the more important and should be recognized.

General Observations

In studying the firearms training practices and results of the New York City Police Department some general observations may be made which are indirectly the concern of range instructional personnel.

Age.—Does a man's firearms proficiency deteriorate with age? The answer is generally "No." He may get weaker with age; he may be more nervous; muscular control may deteriorate somewhat; his arm may tremble when holding the revolver without support; his eyes may be weaker. In short, physical deterioration begins to set in after about age 50. But maturity, practice, familiarity, experience, and eyeglasses seem to correct these deficiencies. A man's shooting proficiency does not improve over the years with limited practice, but it can be maintained into his sixties.

Race.—Does race have any bearing on firearms proficiency? The answer is definitely "No." While firearms records do not distinguish between the races, every firearms instructor in this department and those interviewed from other departments indicated there was no difference based on race.

IQ.—Does intelligence affect a man's shooting proficiency? The answer is a qualified "Yes." While firearms records do not indicate level of intelligence, the following statement summarizes the experience of many range officers in and out of this department. Recruits from the top of the patrolman's civil service list (presumably those with greater intelligence) are easier to teach, learn faster, and shoot better in all phases of firearms training than those from the bottom of the list (presumably those who were just able to pass the written test). Among those recruits from the middle of a civil service register, the ones (subjectively) deemed "bright" or "sharp" by range officers progress more rapidly and attain greater proficiency than those recognized as being "dull" or "slow-witted."

Height.—Is height related to shooting proficiency? Some range officers feel that the lower height requirement in the New York City Police Department (now 5 feet 7 inches) demands that shorter policemen be better trained with the revolver. Their reasoning is that the tall, muscular police officer is challenged less frequently by hostile persons and can often handle situations without a weapon which a short man might not be able to handle except with his gun. While there may be an element of truth in this, it is believed by most that short men shoot as well as tall men, and height is unrelated to proficiency.

Combat.—Is shooting proficiency on the range related to shooting proficiency in combat? The answer is generally "Yes," although statistically it cannot be proven because of inadequate records and the small number of cases. In any case, relatively few bullets of all those fired in combat strike the target at which aimed. This is because shooting conditions on the street are not like those on the range; there is less light; less time to aim carefully; the target is moving; the officer is moving; the target may be returning officer's fire; there are obstructions; the officer may be fatigued from the chase; and so on.

9.2 A New Firearms Curriculum

It is recommended that the recruit firearms curriculum be a 48-hour course, to be given on five consecutive full 8-hour days during the fourth week of training or later, and one additional full day during the final week of training. All qualifying should be accomplished during the 5-day period or in the week following; no qualifying would be required during the final session. This recommended course should not be regarded as definitive but flexible; adjustments may be made to facilitate scheduling. Basically, the course requires single action and qualifying in the first 2 days and 3 days of concentrated double action shooting and qualifying. As a revolver course, it might be regarded as a starting point toward a "model."

First day a.m.

1. Indoctrination; range rules, location of facilities.
2. Filling out forms (P.A. 11, P.A. 12, revolver registration), holster inspection.
3. Safety at the range and off the range.
4. Nomenclature of the .38 caliber revolver.
5. Revolver manual.
6. Single action lecture, dry firing, work on proper grip, stance.
7. Basics of judgment.
8. Fire 10 rounds, slow fire, on reversed bull's-eye target, single action.
9. Critique on first shooting, review of common faults.
10. Fire 10 rounds, slow fire, on reversed bull's-eye target, single action.

First day p.m.

11. Lecture on lowering hammer on live round, dry firing.
12. Fire 10 rounds, slow fire, on reversed bull's-eye target, single action. Practice lowering hammer on live round.
13. Fire 20 rounds, slow fire, single action, on bull's-eye target. (Score both sets of 10 rounds.)
14. Lecture on timed fire, single action, dry firing.
15. Fire 10 rounds, single action, timed fire, on bull's-eye target and score.
16. Critique on timed fire, common faults.

Second day a.m.

1. Review safety rules.
2. Revolver manual.
3. Lecture on judgment.
4. FBI single action film.
5. Review of timed fire, dry firing.
6. Lecture on rapid fire, single action, dry firing.
7. Fire 10 rounds, single action, timed fire, on bull's-eye target and score.
8. Fire 10 rounds, single action, rapid fire, on bull's-eye target and score.
9. Critique on rapid fire, common faults.

Second day p.m.

10. Fire 30 rounds, single action, timed fire, bull's-eye target. (Score all three sets of 10 rounds.)
11. Fire 30 rounds, single action, rapid fire, bull's-eye target. (Score all three sets of 10 rounds.)
12. Fire 30 rounds, slow-timed-rapid fire, single action. (Slow fire score will be recorded for qualification; composite score will be recorded.)
13. Fire 30 rounds, slow-timed-rapid fire, single action. (Slow fire score recorded for qualification; composite score recorded.) Nonqualifiers will re-

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peat the slow fire test. If necessary, those still not qualified will refire for qualification on the third, fourth, or fifth days.

Third day a.m.

1. Safety review, on and off range.
2. Discussion on judgment.
3. Area aiming lecture.
4. Double action lecture, point of aim on silhouette target.
5. Dry fire double action; check grip, stroke of trigger, positions.
6. Fire 50 rounds, double action on new "milk bottle" silhouette target as follows: 10 supported and 10 unsupported from 15 yards; 10 supported and 20 unsupported from 25 yards.
7. Critique on double action shooting.

Third day p.m.

8. Lecture on barricade shooting, strong hand. Dry firing.
9. Fire 40 rounds, strong hand barricade, 20 single action and 20 double action on new silhouette target from 25 yards.
10. Critique on barricade shooting; common faults.
11. Discussion on judgment; lawful use of deadly physical force.
12. Gun cleaning lecture.

Fourth day a.m.

1. Safety while working (radio cars, psychos, prisoners).
2. Lecture on barricade shooting, weak hand. Dry firing.
3. Fire 40 rounds, weak hand barricade, 20 single action and 20 double action from 25 yards on new silhouette target.
4. Critique on barricade shooting.
5. Lecture on kneeling position, supported and unsupported. Dry firing.
6. Fire 20 rounds kneeling from 25 yards on new silhouette target, 10 supported and 10 unsupported, single and double action.
7. Critique on kneeling position shooting.

Fourth day p.m.

8. Fire 40 rounds, double action, barricade, 20 weak hand and 20 strong hand from 25 yards.
9. Fire 40 rounds, double action, kneeling, 20 supported and 20 unsupported, from 25 yards.
10. Lecture—discussion on judgment.
11. Duffco films.

Fifth day a.m.

1. Safety review.
2. Lecture on police crouch (7 yards, double action). Dry firing.
3. Fire 40 rounds from 7 yards, double action, police crouch, supported and unsupported.
4. Critique on police crouch.
5. Fire the double action course as follows:

(*a*)
Twelve rounds from 7-yard line; police crouch, double action, 30 seconds.

(*b*)
Twelve rounds from 15 yards, point shoulder supported, 30 seconds.

(*c*)
Twelve rounds from 15 yards, point shoulder unsupported, 45 seconds.

(*d*)
Twelve rounds from 24 yards; six rounds weak hand barricade, six rounds strong hand barricade; 60 seconds.

(*e*)
Two rounds from 25 yards, kneeling, supported or unsupported, 5 seconds. Total 50 rounds in 2 minutes and 50 seconds on a new combat target. The target will be a neutral shade, silhouette combat target similar to the present New York City Police Academy combat target, but with a thin scoring ring (not readily visible to the shooter) shaped in the configuration of a milk bottle or bowling pin. Scoring will be 2 points for hits inside the bottle and 1 point for hits on the target but outside the bottle.

Fifth day p.m.

6. Critique of the double action course. Review scoring.
7. Fire the double action course for qualification. A score of 75 will be required. Nonqualifiers will be required to refire the course. Those still not qualifying will practice on their own time and return during the following week to refire and qualify.
8. Duffco films, emphasize judgment.
9. Critique of entire firearms training course. Question and answer period. Review.

The relay not on the firing line will have their equipment stamped.

NOTE.—Recruits will not be armed until they complete a week of firearms training and qualify in single and double action.

Sixth day a.m. (final week of training)

1. Safety review (range, off range, on job).
2. Lecture on practical revolver course, positions, distances, time limits.
3. Fire PRC twice. (No qualification required.)
4. Duffco films, emphasize judgment.

Sixth day p.m.

5. Lecture and display of youth-gang weapons.
6. Lecture and display of common weapons to be encountered in daily work.
7. Lecture (includes demonstration, display, and exhibition) on heavy weapons used in the department (rifle, shotgun, submachinegun).
8. Question and answer period, emphasize law and judgment in use of deadly force.

NOTE.—On all 6 shooting days it is recommended that the exact number of rounds to be fired be left to the discretion of the range officer in charge. If the group shooting proceeds at a rapid pace, more firing should be done. Nonqualifiers should refire at the same session to qualify, if time permits.

It is recommended that there be three inservice firearms training sessions each year for all members of the force. The outdoor session would run from April 1 through October 31 each year, for a full day on the range. There would be two indoor cycles: Fall—November 1 through January 15, and winter—January 16 through March 31; each indoor session would be for a half day.

The recommended outdoor cycle would consist of classroom work, demonstrations and firing on the range. Class work would cover tactics, safe handling of various weapons, ballistics and bullet potential, firing at targets in motion, civil disturbances, crowd control, handcuffs, night sticks, judgment, snipers, antisniper program, mobile security unit, firebombs, Molotov cocktails. Techniques would include lecture, films, slides, demonstrations, exhibits and other visual aids. A good, well-rounded firearms program is not measured only by the development of marksmanship, but by the acquisition of knowledge involving the use, potential and tactical application of weaponry. Combat shooting positions and dry firing would be carried out on the line by firearms instructors assigned to the line. The outdoor session would be broken down as follows:

RELAY NO. 1

8:00– 8:10a.m.	Check-in
8:10– 8:30 a.m.	Classroom (safety)
8:30– 8:40 a.m.	Ammunition distribution
8:40– 9:30 a.m.	Firing line, PRC with off-duty revolver
9:30–10:20 a.m.	Classroom (firearms—related subject)
10:20–11:10 a.m.	Firing line, PRC with service revolver
11:10–12:00 Noon	Classroom (firearms—related subject)
12:00– 1:00 p.m.	Lunch
1:00– 2:00 p.m.	Firing line, two PRC's with service revolver (last PRC for record)
2:00– 3:00 p.m.	Classroom (firearms—related subject)
3:00– 4:00 p.m.	Critique, police range, dismissal

RELAY NO. 2

8:00– 8:10 a.m.	Check-in
8:10– 8:40 a.m.	Classroom (safety)
8:40– 9:20 a.m.	Classroom (firearms—related subject)
9:20–10:20 a.m.	Firing line, PRC, with off duty revolver
10:20–11:10 a.m.	Classroom (firearms—related subject)
11:10–12:00 Noon	Firing line, PRC with service revolver
12:00– 1:00 p.m.	Lunch
1:00– 2:00 p.m.	Classroom (firearms—related subject)
2:00– 3:00 p.m.	Firing line, two PRC's with service revolver (last PRC for record)
3:00– 4:00 p.m.	Critique, police range, dismissal

The recommended indoor cycle would involve the following schedule:

INDOOR SESSION NO. 1 (JANUARY 16–MARCH 31)

First hour

(*a*) Check-in, inspection of weapons, ammunition, and leather (20 minutes).

(*b*) Draw ammunition (10 minutes).

(*c*) Lecture on safety (at range, on job, at home) (30 minutes).

Second hour

(*d*) Lecture on single action shooting covering stance, grip, sight alinement, trigger control, breathing, slow, timed and rapid firing (45 minutes)

(*e*) Break and preparation for the firing line (15 minutes).

Third and fourth hours

(*f*) On the 25-yard firing line (L target): Fire 10 rounds slow fire, 10 timed fire, and 10 rapid fire; score and record. (190 out of 300 required) (45 minutes).

(*g*) Review of double action shooting covering stance, grip, sight alinement, trigger control, and position firing (30 minutes).

(*h*) On the 15-yard firing line (combat target): Fire 12 rounds double action, point shoulder, unsupported. On the 25-yard firing line (combat target): Fire 12 rounds double action, point shoulder, supported. Score and record (no qualifying score required), reload for street (45 minutes).

Total, 4 hours, 54 rounds.

INDOOR SESSION NO. 2 (NOVEMBER 1–JANUARY 15)

First hour

- (*a*) Check-in, inspection of weapons, ammunition, and leather (20 minutes).
- (*b*) Draw ammunition (10 minutes).
- (*c*) Lecture on safety (at range, on job, at home) (30 minutes).

Second hour

- (*d*) Double action lecture including shooting, stance, trigger control, grip, sighting, combat position firing, firing at targets in motion (30 minutes).
- (*e*) Lecture on night firing course (15 minutes).
- (*f*) Break and preparation for the firing line (15 minutes).

Third and fourth hours

- (*g*) With off duty revolver on the 7-yard firing line (combat target): Fire 10 rounds double action from police crouch position. From the 15-yard line: Fire 10 rounds double action point shoulder supported. Score and record (no qualifying score required) (40 minutes).
- (h) With service revolver (combat target): Fire 12 rounds double action from the 7-yard line, police crouch position; fire 12 rounds double action from the 15-yard line, point shoulder unsupported; fire 12 rounds double action from the 25-yard line, point shoulder unsupported. Score and record (no qualifying score required) (45 minutes).
- (*i*) With service revolver (silhouette target): Fire 10 rounds on the simulated "night" firing course. Range lights will be lowered to simulate darkness. Course is for familiarization, no scoring required. (35 minutes).

Reload for street.

Total, 4 hours, 66 rounds.

Training Policies

Having outlined the recommended recruit and inservice firearms training programs, a number of suggestions follow which are related to firearms training policies.

Opening of indoor ranges.—The 11 indoor ranges were closed in April 1967 and more than 90 range personnel were reassigned to field commands. All indoor ranges remained closed until recently, when a few reopened. The outdoor range and a few indoor ranges cannot provide adequate training for the 31,000 members of the force, which continues to grow. In addition, there is the possibility that the lease for the outdoor range will not be renewed next year and that facility may be lost. It is imperative that all indoor ranges be reopened immediately.

Hours.—The recommended inservice firearms program cannot be implemented with an 8-hour a day range operation. The once-a-year session at the indoor ranges prior to 1967 was for 25,000 men. The twice-a-year indoor sessions for more than 31,000 men will require a 16-hour operation at indoor ranges, 8 a.m. to 4 p.m. and 4 p.m. to 12 midnight (or 7 a.m. to 3 p.m. and 3 to 11 p.m.)

Presently there are 45 range instructors, five supervisors and nine limited duty personnel, which would be adequate even if all the indoor ranges were reopened. But the instructors are being used for a variety of other functions which are necessary but unrelated to an instructor's duties. If some noninstructional personnel (civilian laborers, maintenance men, clerical workers, truck drivers) were assigned to the range, range officers could be better utilized. This suggestion will provide the necessary span of instructional control without adding additional instructors. There is the possibility of security problems with civilian personnel (weapons, ammunition, records), but it is believed that this potential problem can be overcome by security provisions and proper supervision.

In order that members of the force be given more opportunities for practice, maintenance of a high degree of proficiency, firing of old ammunition and replacement with new, and weapons check for mechanical defects, it is recommended that voluntary practice programs be expanded. This can be accomplished only if the above recommendations are approved. There would then be at least one range in every borough, adequately staffed days and evenings, so that any member of the force may on his own time obtain 50 free rounds of service ammunition each month for use at that range.

Related to practice and the need to improve, as opposed to mere maintenance of shooting proficiency for the benefit of each member, the department, the city and the public, it is recommended that an incentive program be instituted. The New York City Transit Authority Police have the same program formerly in effect in this department. This program provides 1 or 2 days off three times each year (up to 6 days off) for the following shooting proficiency: On a bull's-eye target, single action, slow-timed-rapid fire from 20 yards, a score of 235 out of 300 gives 1 day off, 265 out of 300, 2 days off. The New York Port Authority Police have a program offering members $10 to $50 extra each year (payable the week before Christmas) for a variety of shooting accomplishments. A number of other agencies studied (see app. B) have incentive programs based on money or time off. These agencies report greater improvement in shooting proficiency, higher average scores, a spirit of healthy competition and improved morale as a result of these incentives. Extra money for large numbers of men may not be possible, but a modest time off provision during off-peak periods would not work a hardship on the department and might have beneficial results. Such a program might be experimental, based on the following principles:

1. A score of 95 or better on the outdoor double action PRC, plus 255 or better on one of the indoor single action (slow-timed-rapid) cycles within a year would qualify for 1 day off during October, November, January, or February following the range officer's certification of the accomplishment.
2. A score of 95 or better on the outdoor double action PRC, plus 220 or better on one of the indoor sessions (single action, slow-timed-rapid) within a year would qualify for one-half day off during the same months, following certification of the accomplishment by the range officer in charge.

The results of the program should be evaluated by the police academy after 2 years. If shooting proficiency has increased and interest is sustained and if department manpower has not been seriously affected, the program should be continued or enlarged. If not, it should be dropped.

Related to an incentive program is the matter of credit given on promotion examinations for shooting proficiency. This is an improper and misguided policy, however well intentioned it may be. In New York City, a member of the force aspiring to promotion to the rank of sergeant, lieutenant, or captain is given the following points for shooting proficiency, which are added to his record and seniority score: 1. Expert—0.125 percent (255 slow-timed rapid fire); 2. Sharpshooter—0.100 percent (175 slow-timed fire); 3. Marksman—0.075 percent (90 slow fire). These added credits are cumulative.

It is true that this credit is small and costs the city nothing. However, shooting proficiency is not related to the duties of higher rank, nor is it an incentive to better shooting. According to the range officer in charge, shooting proficiency has not increased since the program began several years ago. This practice should be discontinued. An incentive program based on money awards or time off would be proper recognition and motivation.

Form P.A. 11 (Record of Revolver Instruction) was last revised in 1960 (G.O. 42). This form is used at the Police Academy range to record recruits' progress. Form P.A. 12 (Record of Revolver Inspection, Instruction and Practice) was last revised in 1958. This form is used to record the firearms inspections and practice scores of members of the force throughout their police careers. Both these forms will need extensive revision if the recommendations in this report are approved. Even now the captions on these forms are altered and additional captions are added by range officers to accommodate changes in the firearms training program over the years. This is wasteful and should be corrected by the forms control officer of the planning division in cooperation with the range officer in charge.

The rules and procedures contain 20 paragraphs on "Firearms Practice and Instruction" (ch. 20), five of which contain obsolete information. Because changes in the program as a result of these recommendations will make the entire section obsolete, it is recommended that the planning division rewrite the section in cooperation with the ranking range officer.

Most range officers interviewed in this study indicated it would be a rewarding experience to change places with a range officer of another city for a short period of time. Such an exchange would broaden the experience of range officers and give the department the benefits of experience and innovation in other departments. Thus, for example, one of the range officers in the Chicago Police Department might come here to work with this department's range officers and this department could send a man to Chicago as a replacement for 3 to 6 months. Salaries and expenses would be paid by the respective departments to their own personnel.

The unit training program should develop a session on tactical uses of firearms, emphasizing judgment, in cooperation with the firearms unit of the Police Academy. This television presentation should depart from the usual format to offer a story line based on an actual incident involving the actions of all involved parties leading up to a police officer's use of his revolver and the ensuing results. The unit training sergeant should be provided with a discussion outline designed to elicit free discussion on the subject, the law on the use of deadly force, department firearms policy and a solid summary statement to leave the men with no doubt as to what the department expects with regard to firearms use.

It is recommended that some type of exertion course, similar to the FBI course, be a scheduled part of the outdoor firearms session once each year for all members with the approval of the chief surgeon. A study of the principal case sheets for 1968 and 1967 indicates some 40 cases where police officers fired shots after a foot chase. In most cases the shots did not hit the target. Such a course would require all shooters to run 50 to 100 yards to his firing line position, stop, draw, and fire at a target. Members would quickly realize that accuracy is difficult with the heart pounding, the pulse rate quickened, and short breath. They could then be instructed in the proper technique for shooting under such conditions.

DATE & TIME FIREARM USED

FIREARMS USE REPORT/CHICAGO POLICE DEPARTMENT

NAME OF OFFICER USING FIREARM	RANK	STAR NO.	DIVISION	AREA	DISTRICT/UNIT

DUTY STATUS ☐ ON DUTY ☐ OFF DUTY

TYPE OF ASSIGNMENT – IF "ON DUTY"

TYPE OF INCIDENT – SUCH AS BURGLARY IN PROGRESS, FAMILY FIGHT, ETC.

R.D. OR S.C. NUMBER

DESCRIBE MANNER IN WHICH YOU BECAME INVOLVED – SUCH AS RADIO ASSIGNMENT, ON-VIEW, ETC. IF THROUGH RADIO ASSIGNMENT, GIVE WORDING OF RADIOGRAM.

LIGHTING CONDITIONS
- ☐ DAYLIGHT
- ☐ DUSK
- ☐ NIGHT
- ☐ GOOD ARTIFICIAL
- ☐ POOR ARTIFICIAL

WEATHER CONDITIONS
- ☐ CLEAR
- ☐ CLOUDY
- ☐ RAIN
- ☐ SNOW
- ☐ FOG

LOCATION OF INCIDENT

DISTRICT

WEAPON DESCRIPTION
- ☐ COLT ☐ SMITH & WESSON
- ☐ 38 CAL. ☐ 357 MAGNUM
- ☐ OTHER:

INCIDENT OCCURRED ☐ INDOORS ☐ OUTDOORS

TYPE OF PREMISES

NUMBER OF OPPONENTS

WHAT WEAPONS DID THEY USE?

NUMBER OF SHOTS FIRED AT YOU

DISTANCE FROM SUSPECT WHEN FIRST SHOT WAS FIRED________FEET.

NUMBER OF SHOTS FIRED BY YOU: ____________

DISTANCE FROM SUSPECT WHEN LAST SHOT WAS FIRED________FEET.

OFFICER'S POSITION:

☐ STANDING ☐ SITTING ☐ LYING DOWN ☐ KNEELING ☐ OTHER-SPECIFY

DID YOU HAVE WEAPON DRAWN AND READY FOR USE BEFORE YOU NEEDED IT? ☐ YES ☐ NO

ARE YOU ☐ RIGHT HANDED ☐ LEFT HANDED

GUN WORN ON ☐ RIGHT SIDE ☐ LEFT SIDE

DID YOU HAVE TO RELOAD? ☐ YES ☐ NO

IF YES, HOW MANY WERE YOU ABLE TO RELOAD? ____________

HOW LONG DID IT TAKE ____________ SECONDS?

DID YOU COUNT YOUR SHOTS AS YOU FIRED? ☐ YES ☐ NO

DID YOUR WEAPON WORK PROPERLY? ☐ YES ☐ NO IF NOT, EXPLAIN ON REVERSE SIDE.

DID YOU HAVE TIME TO SIGHT AND AIM? ☐ YES ☐ NO

NUMBER OF SHOTS FIRED: SINGLE ACTION DOUBLE ACTION

INJURIES: SUSPECT WAS:

☐ NOT WOUNDED ☐ SUPERFICIALLY WOUNDED ☐ CRITICALLY WOUNDED ☐ KILLED

OFFICER INVOLVED WAS:

☐ NOT WOUNDED ☐ SUPERFICIALLY WOUNDED ☐ CRITICALLY WOUNDED ☐ KILLED

DESCRIBE PROTECTIVE COVER WHICH YOU USED – SUCH AS LIGHT POLES, DOORWAYS, CAR, FURNITURE, ETC.

WHY DID YOU USE YOUR WEAPON?

☐ PROTECT SELF ☐ PROTECT CITIZEN ☐ PREVENT FELONY ☐ PREVENT ESCAPE OR FLIGHT OF A FELON

☐ SUSPECT WANTED FOR: ☐ OTHER – SPECIFY

SIGNATURE OF OFFICER PREPARING REPORT

DATE REPORT PREPARED

NOTE: ON THE REVERSE SIDE, GIVE A DETAILED NARRATIVE ACCOUNT OF THE INCIDENT GIVING PARTICULAR ATTENTION TO PROBLEMS WHICH YOU ENCOUNTERED THAT COULD HAVE BEEN AVOIDED THROUGH MORE ADEQUATE TRAINING, BETTER EQUIPMENT, ETC.

DISTRIBUTION: ORIGINAL – TRAINING DIVISION, DUPLICATE – DISTRICT/UNIT OF OFFICER, TRIPLICATE – DISTRICT OF INCIDENT

CPD – TD – 28.683 (10/61)

Chapter 10. How Physical Training Standards are Maintained

10.1 Present Physical Training Curriculum in the Police Academy

The Need for Physical Training

The physical training program in the Police Academy of the New York City Police Department is designed to develop a high degree of strength, endurance, agility, coordination, and skill in the police recruit. A current syllabus of the School of Physical Education begins:

> Our potential policeman may be intelligent and possess the best of manners. He may be extremely resourceful and have a keen sense of justice, but these will be of little avail if he does not have the physical ability and confidence in that ability to meet the brutal situations that may confront him in the execution of his duties. A well-directed fist to the stomach of the most intelligent, resourceful, and courteous policeman could well make him forget all he ever learned about police work if he has not been physically and psychologically prepared.

The physical demands made on the police are great and no policeman knows when he will be called upon to perform a variety of physical tests in street situations. The policeman pursues fleeing criminals, vaults fences, grapples with troublesome prisoners or people who are mentally disturbed, races up flights of stairs to assist someone in distress and rescues people who are drowning. Because this is so, the courts have held in favor of plaintiffs in cases arising out of police incidents where the injured party alleged the inadequacy of physical training. It is well recognized that a substantial physical training component is essential in any police recruit program. This need has been recognized in recent years as police entrance requirements have been relaxed. Historically, the patrolman's examination consisted of at least four parts: written, physical, medical, and character investigation. The first two were weighted and competitive, the last two qualifying. Not only was it necessary to pass the physical examination and the written test to place on the eligible list, but the candidate had to pass each of the several components of the physical, for failure in any one was disqualifying. The result was the selection of only the best physical specimens. Several years ago the physical part of the patrolman's examination was made qualifying only, no longer competitive. This means that candidates have only to demonstrate their ability to perform the various tests of strength, agility, coordination, and endurance and attain a minimum score; position on the roster of eligible candidates is based on nothing but the score on the written examination. Thus a premium is placed on intelligence and verbal ability while physical ability is deemphasized. Not only has this change generally led to a less physically adept recruit, but it is inconsistest with department efforts to attract greater numbers of black and Puerto Rican candidates. The latter have not had the same educational opportunities and hence may not have the verbal skills that the white candidates have, but they can compete physically.

In studying the functions of a policeman in chapter 2, no conclusion could be reached as to whether physical condition is more or less important than intelligence or knowledge or resourcefulness. But physical condition is more important than the status it presently has under civil service rules. By that several factors are involved:

(*a*) According to all physical instructors interviewed, recruits are now less physically fit than they were under the former rules;

(*b*) This factor makes the recruits' physical training more difficult and makes them more susceptible to injuries;

(*c*) The appearance of police officers on the street contrasts poorly with those of former days and with today's policemen observed in some other cities;

(*d*) It is believed that a policeman in poor physical condition is more accident prone, will sustain injuries in his work to a greater extent, and will have a poorer attendance record due to illness than the better conditioned policeman;

(*e*) In the long run fewer minority group members will be attracted to police work because their physical attributes, which are comparable to those of the white majority, have no competitive weight on police examinations. They must rely on reading, writing, and verbal ability, at which they are at a disadvantage.

There is some statistical support for these statements. The department's computer indicates there are at least 4,563 members of the force (15 percent) classified as "heavy" (or overweight) when they entered the department, not counting the 2,500 men appointed in 1969. A report from the commanding officer, medical unit, indicates that of 21,421 members of the force whose height and weight were measured at the outdoor range in 1964, 1,109 (5.2 percent) were rated "obese," defined as those members whose weights were more than 15 percent above the Metropolitan Life Insurance Tables of Standards for build and age group. The 15-percent figure is high and arbitrary. Had 10 percent been used, for example, it is estimated that the number rated obese would have more than doubled.

Many of the physical instructors feel that during this period the Department's own medical staff has been passing candidates through the medical examination who might not have been accepted several years earlier. Of 3,608 candidates examined by the medical unit in 1968, only 22 were rejected for obesity.

A department report on April 2, 1969 (T.O.P. 101) indicates an increase of 25 percent in the frequency rate and 16 percent in the severity rate of injuries to members of the force in 1968 over 1967, with only a 10 percent increase in man-hours of exposure. Of 20 categories of activities engaged in when injured, 16 showed increases, and there was no change in one. Some examples are:

	Percent
Attempting arrest of male	+73.75
Attempting arrest of female	+242.85
Handling disorderly persons	+54.54
Radio motor patrol emergency	+26.15
Foot patrol	+39.32
Rescue	+24.10
Training[1]	+61.00
Miscellaneous services	+29.16

The record of sickness of members of the force is not a commendable one. In 1968, for example, the month-by-month figures show:

Month	Number of officers reporting sick	Number of officers returning to duty
January	4,143	3,993
February	2,963	2,599
March	2,986	2,560
April	2,729	2,655
May	2,571	2,372
June	2,407	2,167
July	2,789	2,252
August	2,670	2,693
September	2,677	2,481
October	[1]16,282	15,173
November	3,939	3,637
December	8,533	7,892
Total	54,689	50,474

[1] "Job action" by patrolmen

It is noted that 4,215 more officers reported sick than returned from sick report, making for an ever increasing number currently on the sick rolls. The average length of each sick report case in 1968 was 9.8 days. This figure is high by any standard and represents a substantial economic loss to the city, as well as a substantial loss of police service. Study of the medical conditions accounting for this loss reveals nothing definitive other than the conclusion which is hard to escape, that a significant portion of illnesses is related to physical fitness or the lack of it.

Although the syllabus calls for three physical tests during the recruit training period, one early in the program, one midway through, and a final at the end, in practice it is found that only the final is regularly given because of the time factor with the larger numbers of men now being trained. (The most recent class did have three tests.) In addition, police academy policy provides that all recruits must attain a 70 percent or better on the final physical examination to graduate. Of 6,000 recruits processed through the academy since 1967, none failed the physical. This fact is all the more astonishing when considered in the light of earlier statements with regard to the deteriorating physical condition of recruits. (It should be noted that it has been rare for many years to drop a recruit for failing the physical. Few fail, and those who do are given additional opportunities to be retested.)

Inasmuch as there is no ongoing physical training program in the department, it is important that while recruits are amenable to the rigors and demands of the academy they be subject to higher standards. Those failing to measure up should be given timely warning, an opportunity to meet standards, and finally dropped from the service if they do not. The patrolman will never have a better physical appearance or be in better condition than on the day he leaves the academy. The department should act to assure, at the least, that all new officers are a credit to the department at the time of their academy graduation. Thereafter it becomes more difficult.

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[1] In 1967 only 35 recruits sustained injuries in physical training sessions. Those injured number 67 in 1968, and 148 to Sept. 12, 1969. While more men were trained this year over last, injuries appear to be increasing out of proportion to the increase in the number of men trained.

Recruit Curriculum

The present physical program for recruits consists of 192 hours (more than one-third of the entire curriculum), broken down as follows:

Subject:	*Hours of Instruction*
Infantry drill	6
Calisthenics	60
Baton training	8
Search and frisk	12
Boxing	26
Unarmed defense	48
Riot control	12
First aid	16
Orientation	1
Graduation and rehearsal	3
Total	192

Sessions are held 4 days each week for a period of 3 hours per session over the 16 weeks of recruit training. The curriculum describes each course and provides the justification for it. The program has been analyzed through several devices: (*a*) instructors were interviewed; (*b*) recruits were interviewed; (*c*) the officer in charge and two former officers in charge of the physical school were interviewed; (*d*) several training sessions were observed; (*e*) the training advisory panel discussed the physical program; (*f*) the present and former commanding officers of the police academy were interviewed; (*g*) a comparative study of police physical training programs was undertaken. Some of the conclusions reached are as follows:

1. A basic reason for the 3-hour sessions, 4 days a week, is that the recruit's attention span in academic classes is limited. A full day of lecture is dull and wasteful in that a larger and larger portion of the class's attention is lost as the day progresses. Therefore most days are broken up by adding a physical training unit of 3 hours. This is not to say that the physical training is not needed, but that the figure of 192 hours seems to have been arrived at in a way unrelated to the actual need for specific amounts of training.

2. The largest item is the 60 hours for calisthenics, which consists of a full hour at almost all of the 64 sessions. One-half hour of exercise is given prior to all other physical activity. After a short break, another half hour is given before the start of the second half of the physical training session. The theory is that without such a period of warmup prior to strenuous activities too many injuries occur. The warmup theory is sound, but the length of it may be arbitrary. The project staff believes that 15-minute warmups may be adequate.

3. The extent of proficiency attained in judo, savate, karate, jujitsu, and wrestling, which are the elements of the unarmed defense course, is not great and is quickly lost if the trainee does not keep up with this kind of training. This course should concentrate on restraining holds, come-along techniques, disarming tactics, and self-defense, with short sessions in judo, karate, and so forth just for appreciation. Forty-eight hours are excessive for this component.

4. Although riot control was increased a few years ago from 6 to 12 hours, it is suggested that it be increased to 16 hours and covered more comprehensively, as recommended in the report of the National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders.

5. This study finds boxing unrelated to a police officer's tasks. Few police agencies studied have a boxing course, and these are mostly of only a few hours' duration. The 26-hour course, which consists of 28 three-quarter-hour lessons and six review sessions could be cut to 8 hours without major loss.

6. Certain subjects (i.e., search and frisk, riot control, first aid, and graduation rehearsal) are not physical training courses, but are placed in the physical training program either because they are conducted by physical instructors or in the gymnasium or both. These courses would be better placed in their proper category—under academic training with a notation that they are carried out by the physical training school or in the gymnasium.

7. The 192-hour curriculum is said to be "ideal"; however, rarely is it all covered. It is suggested

that whatever program is adopted be fully covered. There is little basis for scientific comparison at present between two recruit classes or years or programs because of inconsistencies and uncontrolled variables.

Comparative Physical Training Curriculums

Appendix A is a comparative study of recruit training in 60 police agencies. With respect to the physical training category, the following observations are of interest. The New York City Police Department shows 176 hours (the 16 hours for first aid were removed and placed in the proper category), which is substantially greater than the next longest physical training course. New York City uses a full one-third of its overall curriculum for physical training, far more than any other agency.

There are wide differences in the amount of time devoted to physical training by police agencies. The greatest spread, in time, between New York City and Sioux City, Iowa, is 176 hours compared to 5 hours; in percentage, between New York City and Dallas, 32 percent compared to 2 percent. There is no neat way of categorizing cities by size in relation to physical training. Some of the largest cities have little physical training, while some of the smallest have substantial programs. Chicago's new 31-week recruit curriculum contains 1,085 hours, of which only 103 are physical training, about 9.5 percent. The New York State Municipal Police Training Council, which sets minimum police training standards in this State, recommends at least 28 hours of physical training, representing 12 percent of their minimum 240-hour police recruit curriculum.

The 15 cities found to have the largest percentage of time devoted to physical training had an average of 82.3 hours, or 18.2 percent of their average 452-hour curriculum. The 15 cities with the lowest percentage of time devoted to physical training had an average of 19 hours or 4.5 percent of their average 420-hour curriculum. As pointed out in appendix A, the wide differences combined with the comparable 452 and 420 hour average curriculums indicate that physical training is largely discretionary. Since this is so, and because it is known that in some cases brief physical training programs are related to the absence of facilities and long programs are related to the existence of facilities, the question must be asked—does the availability of modern physical training facilities have any relation to the need for physical training? The answer is "No."

Recommendations

1. The physical training program for recruits should be reduced from 192 to 126 hours by reducing calisthenics from 60 to 30 hours, boxing from 26 to 8 hours, unarmed defense from 48 to 26 hours, and increasing riot control training from 12 to 16 hours.
2. The components of the physical training program need not be changed, nor should the content. More intensive training, brought about by better organized training sessions, smaller recruit classes, use of movies and film loops in such areas as search and frisk, use of baton, riot control, and unarmed defense, and the reduction of "lounging" time should enable good coverage of subject matter and better supervision of recruits.
3. The physical school should sequence and coordinate its program with that of the academic school, particularly in the areas of law (search and frisk), mobs and riots (riot control formations and use of baton), human relations and dealing with disturbed and arrested persons (defensive tactics, restraining holds, come-along holds) and so on. Police training will then be compatible in each of its elements and no dichotomy will be fostered in the trainee's mind because of uncoordinated academy programs.
4. The medical unit should study the possibilities of implementing a cutoff policy which would exclude overweight candidates at 5, 10, or 15 percent above standard height-weight tables. Reasonable opportunity to reduce might be given to those who fail to make the weight requirement, but they should be rejected for a second failure. This is the most critical point. If overweight candidates are accepted at this stage, they are not likely to reduce but will probably get heavier over time.
5. The police academy should study the implementation of a policy which would require the loss of weight in overweight recruits who were accepted by the medical unit. Thus, if the medical unit's cutoff point were 10 percent above standard height-weight tables and a recruit is admitted with a

weight 8 percent above normal, he would be put on notice by the academy that he could not graduate without a 50-percent reduction in his excess weight. For example, a 5-foot 9-inch candidate with a large frame should weigh 170 pounds maximum, let us say. The medical unit would accept him up to 187 pounds (10 percent), but the academy would require loss of half the excess (8.5 pounds) prior to graduation day. Inasmuch as the training period in the new curriculum would be 4½ months and a weight reduction program would be available from the medical unit, this would not be an unreasonable requirement.

6. Three graded physical tests should be administered to all recruits in training. A 70-percent passing mark should be the average of the three tests with the final test having double weight. Standards should be upgraded. Unless recruits are convinced that the academy will reject those who do not meet these requirements, they are not likely to make an effort. It may be argued that the department can ill afford to drop a man in whom they have a 4-month investment in training time. The project staff feels, however, that the department can ill afford to appoint people who cannot meet reasonable physical standards and thereby become a risk to themselves and to the reputation of the department.

10.2 Relationship of a New Curriculum to Maintaining Physical Standards

The Terminal Nature of Physical Training

To have 31,000 men maintain a high degree of physical fitness over an entire police career presents a formidable task for the department. The only really effective law enforcement weight control program known to the project staff is that of the FBI where there is neither civil service job security nor effective employee organizations. Few of the police agencies studied have ongoing inservice physical training programs. Hence, as in New York City, it can be said, generally, that recruit physical training is the only physical training the typical policeman will receive during his police career. Thereafter, his physical condition will be a matter of self-determination with no official inspections to insure physical fitness to perform the strenuous duties of his calling.

The first question raised during this project was: Why invest 192 hours in a training program that is terminal, never to be followed up again? An original notion was that recruit physical training should either be reinforced with periodic inservice courses or cut back substantially. A later conclusion was that although some kind of ongoing physical training was desirable, lack of it does not alter the need for physically fit policemen with good personal appearance and a military bearing. Therefore, although some economy is recommended in the recruit training program, it would still be among the most comprehensive in the Nation and one which will adequately prepare the recruit to deal with the hazards of his demanding profession. No amount of physical training will suffice for the years ahead, however, without some followup training.

It is not only the magnitude of the task that has kept police administrators from keeping their men in top physical condition. Firearms training several times each year presents at least as great a problem. But there are problems of medical fitness of the men to engage in strenuous exercises, legal suits arising from training injuries and related medical conditions, and the economics of not only providing training space and materials and staff, but of space, materials and staff to provide periodic medical checkups of each member. Finally, the rising demand for police service makes it more difficult to take large numbers of men from their work for training purposes. These facts, however, do not permit the department to ignore the needs of an adequate ongoing physical training program. Methods must be found to provide some such training. A few suggestions are offered.

Recommendations

The terminal aspect of recruit physical training must be deemphasized. Not only should recruits be impressed with the need for maintaining good physical condition, but experienced officers must be inspected and encouraged or directed to maintain their own physical condition.

1. The department should obtain legal opinions from the corporation counsel or the deputy commissioner, legal matters, or both as to municipal responsibility and liability for injuries and illness attributable to physical training, the possibility of

waivers of liability, and other legal matters. The chief surgeon should determine the need for and frequency of medical examinations. It is obvious that without some clearance no program is possible. Insurance may be an acceptable alternative. The following recommendations assume a favorable legal ruling or insurance protection.

2. A modest program worthy of further study and implementation would combine firearms training presently given at least once a year to all members of the force at the outdoor range with a physical training component. Members are already in work clothes or old clothes; only one relay can be on the firing line at any given time; off relays are not always profitably engaged in classroom instruction; and wide open spaces encourage open-air physical activity when weather permits. Surely 30 minutes of the 8-hour day can be allocated for some routine dynamic tension, calisthenic, or isometric exercises. Mimeographed programs for home followup could be distributed at the same time. One or two physical instructors from the police academy each day could probably handle the assignment, which would cover the entire force in a year. Members with medical disabilities could be excused.

3. The competitive intramural type of activity (swimming, basketball, softball, volleyball, handball, bowling) among precincts, divisions, and boroughs, when properly organized with motivation provided through publicity, awards, and friendly rivalry between commands, provides an excellent voluntary-type program of physical fitness which should be encouraged. To facilitate scheduling of intramural competition, some latitude should be given to commanding officers to enable their best team to participate. Opportunities might also be provided for the more skilled members to participate as representatives of the department in interdepartmental or extradepartmental athletic activities. These programs were in effect in this department for many years through the mid-1950's but were discontinued in order to put more policemen on the street. Actually, the men provided most of the expenses of these programs through their own contributions to the Police Sports Association and little time from patrol was lost, while morale, sportsmanship, citizenship, and health improved greatly, according to those who participated. A number of physical school instructors would be willing to organize such activities.

4. A semivoluntary weight control program should be studied and implemented. Opportunity would be given to overweight patrolmen to participate in a scientifically progressive type of exercise at the police academy gymnaisum, coupled with diet control measures provided by the medical unit. Those overweight men not coming forward for this program voluntarily might be encouraged or motivated by their commanding officers. This program could be conducted during hours when academy gymnasium time is available, even on the midnight to 8 a.m. tour when demands for police service are low and the gymnasium is not ordinarily in use.

5. Commanding officers should be required to observe and inspect the members of their commands in person and through sick reports for physical appearance and conformation. Those overweight members who do not voluntarily participate or who cannot be encouraged to participate in the suggested weight control program should be relieved of choice assignments to special units, radio motor patrol duty, or other favorable positions. Such assignments should be dependent in part on fitness. Conversely, discretion should be available for commanding officers to give the least desirable assignments to the most physically unfit men in the command.

6. A competitive physical inspection program could be implemented at very little cost to the department which could stimulate great interest and friendly rivalry. An inspection team from the police academy physical school could inspect the outgoing platoon of all precincts at unannounced times during the year for physical appearance. Commands would be listed in rank order and the results published by the department. This could be followed by a personal congratulatory communication to the commanding officer of the best precinct from the police commissioner and coverage in Spring 3100 magazine. While the result of this program will likely have a positive effect on all concerned, it will also indicate to the lower ranked precincts their need to take appropriate action.

7. Announcements should be made periodically in department publications or orders as to time and days of availability of the gymnasium and swimming pool so that members of the force may be encouraged to use the facilities. This has been a promise since the opening of the new police academy building. Even though these facilities are

frequently taxed by recruit training programs, there are, nevertheless, many periods of availability which are not known by field personnel.

8. A survey should be made of patrolmen in field commands to determine their feeling for the need for an inservice physical training program. They might also be asked how they feel about such training on the 12 midnight to 8 a.m. shift, when there is frequently great boredom among them for lack of activity. The police academy gymnasium is not usually in use during these hours, locker and shower facilities are excellent, large numbers of men can be accommodated, and all would be available as a reserve force for use anywhere in the city in the event of an emergency. With an adjustment of physical instructor scheduling, adequate instruction and supervision could be arranged.

9. Several police agencies studied which have poor gymnasium facilities have turned to a simple device to provide physical training for their men, both in recruit and inservice training sessions. In the Chicago Police Department, several times each day the trainees stand at their desks or line up along the walls of the corridor and, led by a physical instructor, perform a series of isometric and calisthenic exercises for several minutes. This provides some relief from the boredom of long lectures, widens the span of attention, and encourages the maintenance of physical fitness. The short sessions do not take time from academic instruction, nor do they cause the men to perspire. It is recommended that such a program be attempted experimentally in the inservice training of this department.

10. There are inadequate gymnasium facilities for police officers who would use them if available. It is recommended that such facilities be provided in all new department buildings and that surveys be taken to indicate which existing buildings have suitable space for small gymnasiums or exercise machines. The costs, in terms of space, equipment, and supervision, is considered minimal in terms of results.

11. The ideal long-range plan for the implementation of these recommendations would include the building of a centrally located combination gymnasium and swimming pool in each borough. Such facilities already exist in Sweden, Denmark, and Norway, where policemen not only have unlimited use of such facilities but are given an entire day twice each month for physical development. In Sweden such days are divided into a period of supervised training (calisthenics, judo, come-along holds, restraining holds, crowd control) and a period of free use of gymnasium, sports equipment, swimming pool, and sauna.

The primary objectives of an ongoing physical training program after recruit training are to enable policeman to perform their difficult work efficiently and safely, to reduce fatigue and sickness, to present a better physical appearance in public, to educate the whole individual (mental reactions, emotions, and social conduct). The benefits of an effective program will be:

> Loss of man-hours due to sick report cases, including illness and injuries, should diminish (physical fitness objective).
>
> Citizen complaints against members of the force should decrease (social objective).
>
> Public relations should improve, as well as the police image (physical and social objectives).
>
> Improved police efficiency in protecting the lives of citizens and members through skill development (motor skill objective).
>
> Improved morale, esprit de corps, sense of belonging, sportsmanship, citizenship (social objective).

Substantial time is devoted to refresher firearms training each year, yet most policemen go through an entire career without the need to use their revolvers. Even so, the staff of this project see a need for more firearms training, as long as policemen are required to carry firearms. But no time is now devoted to refresher physical training, even though the average police officer is called upon daily to demonstrate physical prowess. This is an anomaly that cannot be justified.

Chapter 11. Support Services at the Police Academy for the New Program

11.1 A Counseling Service for Recruits

In the reexamination of the recruit in relation to the world about him and to his role as a police officer, attention was given to the provision of support services at the police academy which would be helpful in bridging the gap from civilian to law enforcement officer. Prime among the recommended support services is a counseling center for recruits. The consultant to the project in this area has phrased the need for a counseling service for recruits in the following summary statement.

The New York City Police Academy is designed to educate young people (mostly men) to become officers of the law who are both effective and committed to their role in society. Who are these young men? For the most part the recruit is a young man under 25 years of age and a native New Yorker with a high school diploma. He is a young man who grew up in the postwar years which were marked by parental permissiveness and a floundering educational system. In early youth he was surrounded by decaying neighborhoods, expensive cars, and color TV. About the time of his graduation from high school he lived through a summer that was called the longest hot summer. It was a time of slaughter in a Chicago nurses' dormitory, a time when an Austin honor student destroyed 14 lives. It was a time when New York City sent 1,000 police to pacify an area of hostility in Brooklyn. It was a time of the Meredith March and the emergence of a new phrase, "Black Power."

Since the summer of 1966, as a still very young man in his formative years, the recruit has lived with the controversial issues of open housing, street violence, peace demonstrators, student revolts, the pill, teachers' strikes. His younger brothers have struggled to be turned on, tuned out. They want to do their own thing, perhaps to become hippies or peaceniks. The recruit may also be black and have experienced his own particular struggle to emerge with and for his people.

We know that the recruit has grown up in a time of rapid change and bewildering contrast. He has come to maturity in a world labeled anxious but affluent, a world in which the values of religion, patriotism, and law are challenged by different levels of society.

We do not really know why this particular young man chose the police force. Michael Banton[1] calls attention to the fact that the attraction of the police as an occupation and the psychological consequences of being a policeman have never been studied in depth. We may, however, assume that security and livelihood play a part. But it is also safe to assume that the recruit wants more than security and livelihood.

There has been much written in the occupational literature about man's needs for satisfaction on the job. Many authors have said that the three basic desires that men seek to satisfy in work are: (1) satisfactory human relations; (2) activity in agreeable conditions; (3) an assured livelihood. These three basic desires are cited in the order of their importance.

The occupation which the police recruit has chosen will put strain on his relations with his wife, his neighbors, the man in the street, as well as with his sergeant. It will put an emotional strain on the recruit himself. He comes, then, to the department with the pressures of a fast-changing society around him, to a job that is intellectually and emotionally demanding and where the expectations for his performance are high.

The community expects him to exhibit self-control when he is the target of epithets; it expects him to be both aggressive in pursuit of a thief and humanely concerned about an injured animal. His neighbors expect him to be the example of moral rectitude and yet be able to do a "favor." His wife expects him to be brave and to be home on time.

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[1] Michael Banton, "Police in the Community," (New York: Basic Books, 1964).

The expectations of the community and the expectations of his family are high. The expectations of the police department are also high. The New York City Police Department expects its recruits to demonstrate an ability to get along with people as well as to be able to control people. It expects the recruit to subordinate his self-interest and also to be able to adjust to new situations. The department expects the recruit to respect authority and also to be able to work without supervision. It expects the recruit to be able to settle disputes and also to show regard for civil rights. These are indeed high expectations. If such standards for the recruit of the New York City Police Department are goals worth training for, we need to know what the recruit feels and how much he really wants to accept these goals and to work toward them.

Those responsible for the development of the recruit need to know what the recruit is really like under the skin. His classroom behavior and tests tell what he says and show what he does; but they do not tell what he deep down thinks and feels. The large iceberg of unknown human talent and potential is submerged.

A counseling program could provide regular psychological data on the overall recruit group without violating the confidentiality of the individual recruit's counseling interview. A counseling program could provide the recruit (in either individual or group sessions) with opportunity to talk over his needs, feelings, and problems. Lundstedt[2] makes clear the responsibility of police management to recognize human needs of the policeman and to provide the opportunity to discuss these needs.

Brammer and Shostrom[3] emphasize that counseling is developed rapidly as a professional human helping endeavor. People everywhere are concerned not only with solving and living more comfortably with their life problems but with improving their human effect and becoming their true potential. People want help.

What is Counseling?

A counseling service can be one of the tools in a training program to help the recruit or groups of recruits to develop as more effective human beings and, therefore, to become more effective law officers. This tool can also serve as a means for developing knowledge about the needs, attitudes, and feelings of recruit groups, such knowledge to be used by administration in planning, directing and administering the training program.

The term "counseling" suggests many connotations. From a generic standpoint counseling is understood to mean giving advice or information. We talk of legal counseling, investment counseling, religious counseling, and even beauty counseling; such advice-giving service, of course, has its value, but the applicability of such a service to a police academy will not be discussed.

The field of counseling as a profession of psychological research and practice began to gather force during World War II. As a professional specialty counseling is used today extensively in the fields of education, industry, government.

Counseling is a learning oriented process carried on in a simple one-to-one (or group) social environment in which the counselor is professionally competent in psychological skills and knowledge. McGowan-Schmidt say the counselor seeks to assist the individual to learn more about himself and how to put such understanding into effect so that he may become a happier and more productive member of his society.[4]

The counseling psychologist wants to help the individual overcome obstacles to his personal growth. The counseling psychologist is also competent to help the recruit in more severe emotional problems which may be evidenced by maladaptive behavior such as uncontrolled aggressiveness, passivity, confused sexual identity, hypochondria, problems evidenced by gambling, alcoholism, etc.

The counseling psychologist is professionally trained and his graduate training emphasized the study of human behavior, personality dynamics, and methods of helping man to grow or change. His training included counseling experience in a work situation. The counselor will have developed a counseling philosophy and approach of his own. He uses tests, biographical data, and consultation as aids. He keeps records or tapes and makes reports and recommendations.

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[2] S. Lundstedt, "Social Psychology's Contribution to the Management of Law Enforcement Agencies," Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology and Police Science, 56, 1965. pp. 375–381.

[3] L. Brammer and E. Shostrom, "Therapeutic Psychology" (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1968).

[4] J. McGowan and L. Schmidt, "Counseling Readings in Theory and Practice," (New York: Holt & Co., 1962).

Counseling programs have been found to be useful tools for human development in a wide range of settings. Some of the occupational fields which have found counseling useful and which may be considered relevant are those of industry, education, and public service. Industrial relations experts have a pragmatic concern in helping their work force perform to maximum capacity. Their use of counseling as a means of furthering worker development has been extensive. It has been reported that 27 different national companies had adopted some form of counseling program. Most recently the National Industrial Conference Board reviewed national practice and found nationwide programs providing employees with full opportunity to express feelings in a counseling situation.

The classic 20-year Hawthorne experiment of Western Electric has been a monument in industrial human relations, representing a pioneer effort in worker development. In their recent evaluation of the program, Dickson and Roethlisberger examine the unique contribution of counseling to the resolution of worker constraints in work situations.[5] Their indepth examination of the 20-year counseling program provides industrial psychologists with new guidelines for a reestablishment of a counseling program.

The National Association of Manufacturers in its statement on employing the hard core unemployables today, specifically recommends counseling programs: "By and large, companies offering a counseling service say they have been amply repaid in terms of increased morale, and, many feel, increased production." At the recent American Personnel and Guidance Association Convention (1969), Douglas Harris of the United Airlines, which employs 50,000 employees in the United States, said: "We have found that in the process of selection and development, guidance counselors, or others similarly trained, have proven to be effective."

Young people in college are at the same stage of life as the police recruits. They share with the recruits much of the same struggle for maturity and, while the setting is different, they too are undergoing a learning experience and a need to demonstrate achievement. Colleges are concerned with helping students to use their educational experience fully. Counseling is best justified as an immediate help to students bewildered by the increasingly complex maze of social influence. In this maze most institutions recognize their responsibility to help the student explore his potential and to grow in an orderly manner. Counseling programs are now considered an integral part of the educational process. In 1968 it was reported that in more than 1,000 colleges, counseling centers were established and functioning on the campus.[6] The stresses of academic pressures, of competition, conflict of values, of economic remuneration, revolt against the establishment, all can be likened to some of the stresses experienced by police.

There has been substantial research to evaluate the effectiveness of counseling for college students. One of the most interesting is a study by Williamson and Bordin at the University of Minnesota. This was a followup on a group of students 25 years after they had received counseling; this group of counseled students was compared with a group of noncounseled students. Although the differences on specific criteria of achievement were not large, the data support the general conclusion that counseling did indeed exert a beneficial effect on the counseled students' achievement.

All counseling does not need to be on emotional problems or crisis concern. In 1969, one author wrote that the problem of motivation is crucial to college success and is usually tied in with other kinds of problems, problems of relationship with others and rebellion against authority.[7] Students do not have to be troubled by severe academic problems to take advantage of counseling service.

While the college student is comparable to the police recruit in age and some of the stresses he experiences, educators working with special groups in educational settings may have even more comparable concerns. Authorities working with seminarians, nurses, and athletes have found counseling their students to be of benefit. Such educators, like staff in a police academy, work with young people in an authoritarian setting and in a situation which implies helping the young person develop loyalties to the professional team or force. Such young people are all concerned with the public and are also subject to the rigorous disciplines of their field.

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[5] W. Dickson and F. J. Roethlisberger, "Counseling in an Organization" (Boston, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1966).

[6] F. Nugent and E. Pareis, "Survey of Present Policies and Practices in College Counseling Centers in the United States," Journal of Counseling Psychology, 15, 1968, pp. 94–97.

[7] H. Lindgren, "The Psychology of College Success," (New York: Wiley & Sons, 1969).

In a recent study of personnel practices in accredited theological schools, 88 percent reported having professionally trained counseling staff; 44 percent of the students reported that they had sought help and three out of four indicated that the counseling service was helpful. Authorities in the field of nursing have long recognized the need for a counseling service for their students. The school of nursing which has no planned counseling program is dependent on casual relationships to help the individual student achieve what is essentially a difficult and involved adjustment. It has been written that unless the nursing school provides such counseling, it is not making best use of the talents it has in the student body.[8]

A program for the development and training of athletes at University of Wisconsin includes a counseling service whose function is to gain information on the personality dynamics of football team members and to provide professional counseling to coaches and team members to help find the best ways to develop successful athletes. Although the program is of recent origin, Dr. M. Maultsby, responsible for the program, has reported positive changes in behavior of team members.

Counseling services for civilians working for the U.S. Army during World War II helped many employees with personal and job problems, but some also used the service to explore ways for becoming more satisfied human beings. In more recent experiences with social workers in a municipal service, despite the fact that the employees' supervisors were especially trained in knowledge of human behavior, staff members used the personnel specialist (counselor) for help in resolution of personal as well as job-related problems.

HOW TO ESTABLISH A COUNSELING SERVICE AT THE POLICE ACADEMY

In establishing a counseling service within a training program it is important to define and circulate to staff a statement relative to the scope and responsibilities of the service function. What will be the duties and operation of the program? What will be its responsibilities, to whom will its services be directed?

The counseling service in a police training program will serve all levels of the Police Academy. Its total service will be directed to the following:

Top command.—The counseling service will collect data on the psychological climate of the recruit classes. With the accumulation of knowledge concerning problems, attitudes, and needs of the recruits, the counselors will be in a position to offer suggestions for standards and policy related to recruits.

Police Academy faculty.—Counselors will meet regularly with instructional staff at the academy in order to provide feedback on indicated needs of recruits in training. The counseling staff will conduct seminars and institutes on learning theory, dynamics of personality, behavior adjustment, recognition of emotional problems.

Classes of recruits.—Counselors will meet with all new classes to orient the recruit classes on the nature and function of the counseling service. In addition to the orientation session counselors will provide group counseling for groups of selected recruits to counsel in special areas of concern such as (*a*) how and why of behavior problems; (*b*) how to get along with difficult people; and (*c*) special problems of financial management, sex, and family relations.

Individual recruit.—Counselors will counsel with the individual recruit who feels that he wants and can use help in learning how to get along with others, how to meet his personal crisis, or how to change or use himself more effectively.

Further responsibilities of the counseling service will include—

Special "outside" groups.—The counseling service will provide group counseling for special nonacademy groups, such as wives of fiancees of recruits, covering the role of the policeman and one's relationship to him. In this area the counselors will cooperate with the wives' association.

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[8] H. Gordon, K. Densford, and E. Williamson, "Counseling in a School of Nursing" (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1947).

Teaching.—Counselors may teach on the Police Academy faculty in areas of special competence, such as social psychology.

Testing.—The counseling service will administer and interpret tests (adjustment and temperament inventories) in group or individual situations as indicated.

Research and evaluation.—The counseling service will design and conduct research on behavior, attitudes and needs of recruits, so as to provide to the police department added tools for the enrichment of training and supervision of recruits. The counseling service will also develop methods for the regular self-appraisal of the counseling service.

Policy for Counseling Service

Orientation of academy staff.—The commanding officer of the Police Academy would need to introduce the adoption of the program in a meeting. A formal brochure or pamphlet should be prepared covering the functions of the service. The success of the counseling program will require a counseling staff presentation to describe the nature and basic purpose of the program.

Orientation of recruits.—The counselor will meet with all new classes of recruits and in the introductory session will describe and discuss the nature of the counseling service.

Confidentiality.—In many States the counseling psychologist has privileged communication. New York State, as well as nine others, has passed licensure laws for the psychologist to accord to their clients the privilege of confidential communication. In a discussion by the consultant with a patrolman of the possible acceptance by recruits of such a program, he commented, "If you can really convince them that you're not a stool pigeon for administration, guys would use it."

Referrals to or from counseling service.—It should be fully understood that no recruit can be "sent" to a counselor. All levels above the recruit should understand that supervisors may only "suggest" that a recruit consult with a counselor. The service must never be used as an arm of discipline. Referral from the counseling service may be made by the counselor in situations where a social or medical service is indicated. In those cases where there is evidence of severe emotional disturbance the counselor may consult with police department medical unit, police chaplains, or may refer the recruit to an appropriate agency. In rare cases of possible threat of suicide or homicide the counselor is not bound by confidentiality.

Staffing of Counseling Service

Yoder[9] believes that a satisfactory staff ratio provides one counselor for each 300 employees. For a class of 500 recruits it is recommended that the program begin with two trained counselors, one with a doctorate in counseling or clinical psychology, and the second counselor to have at least a master's degree in psychology or counseling. One of the staff should have specialty in group counseling and testing. Previous counseling experience would be desirable. It must be emphasized that in addition to the professional qualifications, the personal characteristics of the counselor are of prime importance. The individual counselor must be objective, have respect for individuals, have self-understanding, mature judgment, and the ability to listen and keep confidentiality, and have personal integrity.

While the personal and professional qualifications are the basic considerations in the selection of a counselor, we must speak to the qualifications of sex and race. There are those who would argue that in a quasi-military organization only a man counselor could be effective. The counselor who comes across as technically qualified, and is recognized to have warmth and genuineness will gain the confidence of the person to be counseled in most cases. But to deny that these factors can have some bearing on the individual counseling situation would be naive.

Recognizing that the young male recruit may have bias against a woman counselor, it would seem advisable that at least one of the counselors be a man. Recognizing also that the black recruit may well have an initial reaction against a white counselor, it may be advisable to have one black counselor. In this connection, however, a well-qualified white counselor will be more readily acceptable than a black counselor whose qualifications are less.

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[9] Norman Yoder, "The Selection and Training of Public Safety Personnel in American Municipalities," unpublished Ph. D. dissertation: Ohio State University, 1942.

Counseling Center Personnel

Suggested staff: One Ph. D. (counseling or clinical psychologist); One M.A. or M. Ed. (counseling) (professional staff to be paid at established salary schedule for these professional positions in the City University of New York); One secretary-receptionist; and One clerical (records, filing, and scoring).

Equipment: Tests, tape recorders, and films.

Budgetary support for the counseling service will require approximately $50,000 per year. It is recommended that one professional counselor be recruited on July 1, 1970, to begin in the planning phase to lead to a full implementation of the counseling service by January 1, 1971. It should be kept in mind that no present services available within the police department provide a counseling service. This support service is an essential part of the total educational experience anticipated with the implementation of the recommendations of this project. Close cooperation and not competition will characterize the relationship between the counseling service and the medical unit and the police chaplains.

Hazards to a Counseling Program

Counseling can be an enrichment for the recruit training program; however, the benefits of counseling psychology are difficult to prove. This, together with the fact that inclusion in a training program will be innovative and without known precedent, makes it necessary to point out certain hazards to the program. The establishment of a counseling program will, to some extent, carry the mark of the counselor in charge; it cannot, therefore, be overemphasized that care in the selection of the counselor will be the first vital concern. There are, of course, certain built-in hazards to the effectiveness of the program. These hazards are at staff and recruit level, as well as in the counseling staff itself.

Most people feel competent and even eager to counsel anyone anywhere. Staff with authority in a work situation quite naturally feel a vested interest in those for whom they are responsible. One understands their suspicion of the recruit who might seek help from "outside." A counseling service may seem to threaten the hoped-for loyalty relationship between staff and recruit. And in a police setting there is a built-in bias which tends perhaps to view feelings as suspect and problems as evidence of weakness. This problem can be particularly met by a clear, firm support from the top command. In such support the Police Academy administration must make it clear that not only does the program have the interest but enthusiastic support of the top management. The counseling staff itself can help by the method and content of the orientation session to be held with the administration and staff prior to the launching of the program. Regular meetings with the staff will provide opportunity for staff counselors to interact on problems, atttiude, and performance of recruits.

A counseling program will have inherent in it the difficulty of its acceptance by the recruit himself. He is in the academy for a short time and undoubtedly will feel that it is necessary to put his best foot forward. Most of us try to conceal difficulty while under scrutiny and the recruit is no exception. Further, he is in authoritarian setting where disciplined behavior and the image of strength are at a premium. This together with his own lack of sophistication in the area of psychology will also provide a built-in bias against "head shrinkers." The black recruit may have additional reason to suspect any program which encourages him to share fears, anger, or hurt.

Some of this inevitable resistance on the part of the recruit will be recognized by the counselor as natural. The orientation program for recruits will be designed to explain the service and will not only give knowledge but will also give the recruit opportunity to react to the personality of the counselor. If the counselor makes himself known and available in informal situations (in cafeteria, on street, in corridors), the strangeness of the service will lessen.

Group counseling will also help the individual recruit to accept the service for his own individual problems or concerns. The first few recruits who use the service will be the biggest factor in breaking down the resistance barrier.

This is a time of public scrutiny of the police. The intellectual and emotional demands upon recruits are greater than ever before. The recruit senses this and he will commit himself to his best, or he will learn to "stay out of trouble." The quality of the training will in some degree be a measure of his performance in the field. The recruit of today has a right to expect all the help possible to prepare him for the street so that, in fact, he can become one of "New York's finest."

If the belief is held that all men have the capacity for growth but that each man is unique, if the skills that psychology can offer are accepted, then there is reason to believe that a counseling program can provide a viable adjunct to the recruit training program.

A Wives' Association

In the Nassau County Police Department, and in one form or another in other police agencies, a police wives' association has been organized and has been proven highly successful as a management tool and morale builder. Every police recruit is asked early in the recruit training program to bring his wife or fiancee to the Police Academy for a morning or afternoon social. After some preliminary remarks by the commanding officer of the academy, the police commissioner addresses them briefly. This is followed by coffee and cookies and some interaction between wives as well as between wives and faculty. This session, lasting an hour or so, is followed by a tour of police headquarters.

Just prior to graduation the wives are brought in again for a similar social. At graduation exercises not only are all wives invited to attend, but awards are made to the wives of the officers attaining the highest academic mark in his recruit training, the highest in firearms proficiency, the highest in physical rating, and the officer who performed the outstanding act of police work during the 16 weeks of basic training. By this time the wives have elected their own officers and have established a wives' association for that graduation class which endures and works with the wives of prior graduating classes for social purposes.

The purpose of this device is to inculcate in recruits, through their wives, a greater appreciation for police work and its individual responsibilities. It helps the wives to understand the nature and special problems of the police profession and seeks their understanding and patience when their husbands are required to work around the clock, weekends and holidays, as well as late or on their days off after having made an arrest. This makes for a better domestic life for police officers and enables them to concentrate their efforts on their work to much greater extent, with a minimum of pressure at home.

The staff of this project was impressed with this innovation and discussed its possibilities with the New York City Police Department chaplains and with the project consultant on professional counseling. The benefits to the department and to police recruits appear to be many. The disadvantages, it would seem, stem from the organizational aspects of the wives' association. If such an association could be developed informally—that is, without a formal organizational structure, officers, representatives, etc.—but maintained solely along social lines, all the advantages could accrue without the disadvantages, at relatively little expense.

The four police chaplains interviewed favored this suggestion without qualification. The feeling seems to be that the department is too businesslike and unconcerned with the personal problems of its personnel. A program such as this would demonstrate to recruits and their wives, present and intended, that the department does care about them. The logistics of this suggestion may be difficult, dealing as we do with large numbers. It is possible that these wives' socials could be organized on a company basis, one or two companies at a time, on a staggered schedule. The logistics of implementation could be left to the recommended counseling unit, to the recommended civilian director of training and education, or to the Police Academy executive officer or scheduling officer. The police department chaplains also indicated a willingness to serve this program in some way.

11.2 Remedial Education Resources for Recruits

Evidence developed during observation and evaluation of recruit classes in attendance at the Police Academy during the period of this project has indicated that a small but significant proportion of the recruits are lacking in the basic skills, such as effective reading, writing, and speech. This discovery is not a surprise, since for a complex of reasons the recruits come to the academy in large measure from a general school population that is not always equipped with all these skills. The problem is particularly aggravated for ghetto school students, who have the added complications of being from an underprivileged and black and Puerto Rican background, although it is by no means limited to any particular ethnic or national group. The City University of New York has been forced to undertake a massive program of remedial education in order to implement its programs, such as SEEK and College Discovery. In connection with the current planning for the open enrollment policy for the university, major resources will be allocated to remedial work to prepare high school graduates for college education on both the community and senior college levels.

From the point of view of the police department, the deficiencies in reading, writing, and speech of many members of recent recruit classes present a major obstacle to the communication of a more sophisticated recruit curriculum. Such deficiencies also present a severe handicap for the recruits later in their careers, when they seek promotion. In no way is it the task of the Police Academy to undertake a remedial education program, but it is the responsibility of the department to make certain that recruits are brought up to adequate levels in basic skills.

It is recommended that the director of education and training, in cooperation with the commanding officer of the police academy, arrange for "release time" for recruits with educational deficiencies to attend approved programs of remedial education. Existing programs available in the city of New York, both through the board of education and the board of higher education, should be tapped for this purpose. The identification of recruits with serious basic skills deficiencies should be accomplished through the testing services of the counseling center at the Police Academy. In addition, individual recruit-class instructors, both police and civilian, should be required to refer deficient recruits for testing and remedial education. If necessary, the length of the individual recruit's training in the academy should be lengthened to assure that he meets minimum standards. In order to avoid adverse effects of public identification of remedial classes at the academy, such education should be conducted at centers away from the academy. Directives will require attendance and successful completion of such training as a necessary part of the recruit curriculum.

11.3 Educational Materials Development Unit

With the implementation of the recommended new curriculum at the Police Academy, there will be need to assign responsibility for the development of new educational materials to a special unit. These materials will embrace all of the types of educational tools discussed in section 5.4 of chapter 5 and others. In the case of several such proposed new materials, for example film loops and programed instructional materials, outside funding from public agencies or foundations should be sought and may well become available. Projects funded for developmental purposes will be the responsibility of this new unit, which should be headed by a superior officer who is an experienced member of the instructional staff. He should organize specific task forces to carry out materials development.

It is recommended that the educational materials development unit be created, which would absorb the present visual aids unit with all its functions and assume the following additional responsibilities:

- Develop film loop programs for recruit and inservice training.
- Develop in-house capability for producing film loops and film strips.
- Develop PI materials for various programs.
- Develop in-house capability for the production of PI materials.
- Design projects and proposals for submission for outside funding.
- Study the possibilities of CAI, teaching machines, and other sophisticated teaching techniques for use in the academy.
- Organize a more comprehensive library of movie film, film strips, slides, and TV tapes for training purposes.
- Study the curriculums and film library resources in order to determine relevant applications; make recommendations to the faculty; encourage broad use of materials.
- Assist other staff at the academy in the development of role-playing and play-acting materials.
- Keep abreast of developments in technical equipment, such as audio and video devices, as well as developments in training and education generally.
- Serve as adviser to the director of education and training, COPA, and the academy faculty on the above matters.

Chapter 12. Postrecruit Training and Education as Part of the New Program

12.1 The Mission of Postrecruit Training and Education

A recurrent theme of this report has been the need to structure an appropriate response at the educational and training level to the challenges faced by law enforcement in modern society and, more particularly, in that society as it is likely to evolve in the next few years. The concept of a total educational experience has been used in reference to the sequence of experiences from the recruit class through the highest level of education. It is self-evident that a recruit curriculum, no matter how perceptive in its content and application, will not guarantee a continuing effectiveness throughout the years of service subsequent to graduation from the recruit school. This is the problem of inservice training—how to sustain the level of knowledge within the entire department. Related aspects of this problem include the provision of specialized training, unit training, continuing training for patrolmen, pre-promotion training, and intensive developmental training for commanders holding ranks above that of captain. With the logistical problems presented in a department the size of the New York City Police Department, the design and operation of a structure of inservice training and education becomes a problem of major magnitude. It means that approximately 30,000 working police officers must be offered the opportunities for education and be required to complete training at levels appropriate to their ranks and duties.

As a part of the research conducted by staff of this project, the experiences of the Armed Forces, Federal law enforcement agencies, and major business enterprises were reviewed. Essentially, it was felt that at the higher levels of rank and responsibility the types of education and training which are relevant become more and more identical. That is to say, management elements tend to predominate over task elements. The inspector in a police agency is a manager. Deputy and assistant chief inspectors are top management and, literally, in the New York City Police Department they command (lead and direct) the activities of a workforce larger than that of many business managers. Therefore, there would appear to be a spectrum of postrecruit training which ranges from "refresher" training for all members of the department through specialized skills training to management training. The department has long maintained an elaborate program to meet these needs. Major recommendations made by this project relate to strengthening the unit training program, introducing mandatory advanced training for superior officers, and providing for a system of progressive educational achievement for members of the department.

The report of the President's Commission expressed deep concern about the lack of effective inservice training for all police officers. The Commission recommended that—

> Every general enforcement officer should have at least 1 week of intensive inservice training a year. Every officer should be given incentives to continue his general education or acquire special skills outside his department.

The Commission argued for curriculum development and training for instructors, and special training programs in critical program areas such as organized crime, riot control, and police-community relations. The Commission also called for graduate training in law and business administration for police executives through degree courses or special institutes.

The Task Force on the Police wrote:

> Deficiencies in current police training are not limited to recruit programs. New laws are enacted and old ones

amended; the enforcement needs of a community change, and new concepts of police techniques and department policy emerge. These factors dictate that training be a continuing process.

The Task Force called for training in basic administrative techniques, such as budget preparation and administration, organizational techniques, space and manpower studies, and procedural analysis for officers, prior to assignment to administrative duties.

A useful schematic view of the present pattern of inservice training in terms of ranks involved in the present training courses is found on the following page.

Pattern of inservice courses—by rank—New York City Police Department

	Chief inspector	Assistant chief inspector	Deputy chief inspector	Inspector	Deputy inspector	Captain	Lieutenant	Sergeant	Patrolman/ policewoman	Detective
Operations training:										
Command course A	X	X	X	X	X					
Command course B						X				
Command course C							X			
Command course D								X		
Crowd control	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Youth officer									X	
Criminal investigator									X	X
Precinct unit training								X	X	
Patrolman/detective refresher									X	X
Administrative training:										
Executive development	X	X	X	X	X					
Management techniques	X	X	X	X	X	X				
Lieutenant administrative aide—training							X			
Report writing								X	X	X
Career development:										
Police college	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Graduate work—police science	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Pre-promotion captain						X				
Pre-promotion lieutenant							X			
Pre-promotion sergeant								X		X
Specialized program:										
Methods of instruction							X	X	X	X
Lecture techniques							X	X	X	X

12.2 Strengthening the Unit Training Program

Almost without exception recruits enter the department with no formal training in police procedures. Most possess a high school diploma or, at the minimum, an equivalency certificate. Prior to 1957 there was no organized inservice training program, and when the recruit completed his 4-month vestibule training, his police training was almost finished. Any further training was provided by his immediate supervisor in the field. The police department rules and procedures require continued instruction of all members of the force by commanding officers[1] and sergeants.[2] All supervisors have ongoing responsibilities for the continued training and instruction of all police officers.[3] While some superiors accepted this responsibility and provided excellent training in the field, generally it can be said that by itself this was an inadequate inservice training program.

The social revolution and the rapid changes in police technology in recent years, coupled with public demands for better quality police service, require that all members of the police force be kept current on a continuing basis in respect to new developments, techniques, and policies. When the department of personnel surveyed this department in the summer of 1957 relative to the extent and nature of inservice training programs, the department learned that, while it had no such formal training, almost all other city departments did. A series of command training conferences held at the police academy at about the same time revealed the need for localized (decentralized) inservice training. As a result, a field service training program was instituted on an experimental basis in certain precincts on October 1, 1957, with the academy acting as coordinator. The program was expanded by the chief inspector on February 28, 1958, to include all patrol precincts within patrol borough Brooklyn east. A favorable evaluation of that program on October 6, 1958, recommended that it be further extended to all patrol precincts in the city. However, the citywide field service training program was not adopted until 1962.[4] The unit training program as it is today became a reality on February 14, 1963.

Unit Training Program

In cooperation with the New York City municipal television station WNYC, channel 31, a half-hour television program is telecast every day, Monday to Friday inclusive, from 4 to 4:30 p.m. These training programs are produced by the Police Academy staff. The same telecast is shown for 4 consecutive weeks, thus enabling every member of every field command to attend one such session. From 4:30 to 5 p.m. there is a lecture and discussion relating the subject matter of the telecast to local conditions and problems. There are nine monthly telecasts a year, September to May, each devoted to a specific topic. During the 3 summer months there are 1-week reruns of these programs, so that all nine telecasts are repeated.

The commanding officer of each field unit of the department designates a sergeant from those available at his command as the unit training officer. The selection is made on the basis of the sergeant's background and experience (such as college degrees or credits, teaching experience, lecturing or instructional ability, and other pertinent factors). When the selection is approved by the academy it is forwarded to the chief inspector for confirmation. These sergeants are then trained at the academy during a 1-week methods-of-instruction course. The course covers such materials as fundamentals of instruction, principles of learning, planning the lesson, presenting oral instruction, speech techniques, training aids, questioning techniques, the demonstration method, the application stage, the examination stage, small group discussions, and coordinating a training program. In addition, each sergeant makes three class presentations: supervising student preparation for presentation, presentation of a short lesson, and presentation of a long lesson.

The function of the unit training sergeant is to complement the half-hour telecasts with an additional half-hour instruction on local needs and conditions relating to the training topic and also to promote group discussion. The instructor is assisted in this task by a unit training memo which is prepared at the academy in conjunction with the television production. In effect, it serves as the lesson guide or lesson plan. During each cycle the unit training sergeant is permitted "sufficient time, not to exceed a maximum of one tour of duty,"[5] for the preparation of necessary instructional material to complement the unit training memo and for the completion of necessary administrative duties in connection with the unit training program. Theoretically the unit training sergeant devotes approximately one-half of his working week to the program, the other half devoted to regular duties in his command.

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[1] Ch. 1, par. 16.0, par. f.; and ch. 3, par. 3.0.

[2] Ch. 2, par. 28.0.

[3] Ch. 20, par. 1.0 and 2.0.

[4] Standard Operating Procedure No. 46, Dec. 31, 1962.

The subject matter of unit training sessions has been varied. The following is a list of some of the program topics in recent years:

Gambling enforcement.
New laws (repeated each year).
Holiday traffic safety (occasionally repeated before holidays).
Law of arrest and come-along holds.
Lawful use of force and baton tactics.
Basic ethics.
Narcotics and the law.
Summer problems (usually repeated each May).
Crowds.
Psychology and human relations.
Courtroom conduct and procedure.
Diplomatic immunity.
Organized crime.
Youth and the police.
Evidence.
Evidence and testimony.
Accident scene tactics.
The policeman and the community.
Public morals law enforcement.
Stop and frisk.
The Manhattan summons project.
Auto theft.
The new penal law (five sessions).
The use of deadly force.
The universal summons.
Basic patrol tactics.
Response tactics.
Crime scene tactics.
Stops—persons and cars.
The citizen's role in crime prevention.
Handling of prisoners.
Operation Sprint.
Spanish phrases.
Elections (repeated prior to election day each year).

The TV presentations utilized straight lecture in the early years. More recently, the use of guest lecturers, slide photographs, film segments, and other visual aid techniques has improved the quality of the presentations.

To assure that all members of the force participate in one such training session each month, the following procedures are used. Two squads from the 4 p.m. to midnight tour are assigned for instruction each day. Members who work steady hours, such as day squad and clerical patrolmen, are assigned to attend these sessions on a rotating basis. Insofar as the exigencies of the service permit, lieutenants and sergeants assigned to field commands also attend the training programs. The unit training sergeant is responsible for keeping records of all members attending training sessions and for ascertaining that every member of the command attends one such session each month. On the fifth day following the end of a training cycle, the sergeant is responsible for the submission of an activity report to the police academy unit training coordinator.

Supervision of the program is accomplished through several feedback devices. The academy sends staff supervisors into the field on occasion to observe the manner in which the program is conducted and to evaluate the efficiency of the program. Unfortunately, manpower limitations have prevented adequate supervision. Unit commanders, as well as division and borough commanders, also have responsibility for supervising the program. They are expected to visit field commands during training sessions, observe the manner in which training is being conducted, and submit reports and recommendations to the commanding officer, Police Academy. However, not many such reports are received. Members of the police force reporting to the academy for other courses, such as detective refresher, criminal investigation courses, prepromotion courses, career development courses, and the like are often interviewed concerning unit training. From their comments the program is updated, improved, and made more relevant to the needs in the field.

Evaluation

Members of this project staff attended several unit training sessions, reviewed all unit training memos, interviewed the unit training staff of the academy, visited several precincts for discussions with unit training sergeants, and interviewed eight unit training sergeants from representative precincts at the academy (6, 17, 28, 50, 60, 73, 103, and 110 precincts). The objectives of the unit training program are threefold:

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[5] SOP 46 (1962), revised Feb. 14, 1963.

> To keep men up to date with changes in policy and procedures;
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> To complete police training, since not everything of value can be covered during the present 4-month recruit training period; and
>
> To maintain professional interest.

These objectives have been difficult to achieve, however, for the following reasons. There are continuous changes in the law, in court decisions, department policies and procedures, as well as continuous political and social change. However, because there are only nine training sessions available during the year, the amount of information that can be presented in one training session is limited. With the few short training sessions not all subjects are covered and those which are, cannot be covered in great detail. In addition, the timing and location of the sessions are not conducive to effective training. Many station houses are not equipped for the privacy needed for good instruction. The changing of the patrol tour, the movement of personnel and related activity is disruptive. Unit training sergeants are also used as pistol license investigators, communications specialists, civil defense officers, and have a variety of other duties, including routine precinct patrol, all of which prevents their full preparation and personal effectiveness in the training cycle.

During the course of this project a training advisory panel was established to assist the research staff. The panel consisted of nine members of the sergeants, detective sergeants, Police Academy sergeants, patrol lieutenants, Police Academy lieutenants, headquarters lieutenants, and captains. The panel included a Negro and Puerto Rican, males and a female, high school graduates and college graduates, superiors and subordinates which was felt to be a cross section of the department. At one panel session, after the panel members had been given a week to prepare, the unit training program was discussed for 2 hours. In general, the panel's conclusions were as follows:

> Police officers in the field do not appear to be motivated for these sessions; they often do not see the subject matter as relevant to their needs, nor do they view the programs as a source of civil service examination questions for promotion. They scheme to avoid attendance and when in attendance they appear bored and disinterested.
>
> While some unit training sergeants are more dedicated or have more ability than others, some carry out their tasks in a perfunctory manner, providing no stimulation or interest.
>
> While the panel felt most of the subject matter relevant to field work, there has been a sufficient number of irrelevant subjects covered so that interest and motivation is not aroused. For example, gambling enforcement is considered by most patrol officers as the function of the plainclothes force. Basic ethics is considered by many as "brain washing." Diplomatic immunity has relevance in only certain parts of the city. Organized crime is not considered a local problem. Public morals law enforcement is thought to be the responsibility of detective and plainclothes forces.

Discussion with unit training sergeants confirms these observations, but with some reservations. The unit training sergeants listed the following complaints in the order of seriousness:

They are given insufficient time for research, preparation of lessons, and the administrative duties related to the unit training program. They also have too many other duties.

Precinct captains and lieutenants often lack adequate appreciation of the program, superior officers rarely attend. This tends to make the instructor sergeants feel they are doing unimportant work and have less prestige than other sergeants. This feeling is reinforced when routine jobs unrelated to training are given to them rather than to the other sergeants.

The presence of a unit training sergeant in the command makes some supervisors feel they are relieved of training responsibilities. But when officers are inadequately informed as a result, the blame is placed on the unit training sergeant.

While the telecasts provide information and cover a subject adequately, they are not sufficiently interesting.

Older patrolmen appear to reject the training as too basic and repetitive. The new patrolmen, on the other hand, are not only discouraged by the older men from taking the training seriously, but occasionally find the material too advanced.

The unit training telecasts and memos are prepared at the academy by men who have been away from field assignments for some time. The unit training sergeant in the field feels he should participate actively in their production.

There is little flexibility in the program. The 30-minute session following the telecast must usually be related to the telecast, whereas the unit training sergeant would often rather cover materials having more local importance.

An evaluation of the unit training program was documented in a master's thesis in the John Jay College of Criminal Justice of the City University of New York by Sgt. John O'Sullivan of the 48th precinct. He sent a questionnaire to all unit training officers in October, 1966. He reported that 17 percent rated the program as excellent, 33 percent as above average, and 50 percent as good and none rated it as poor. The opinion generally was that the program is helpful and useful to patrolmen. He reported that most respondents desired an increase in lecture time and a small number wanted an increase in television time.

In the 7 years since the unit training program was implemented, no formal evaluation by the department has been undertaken. The heavy workload of the academy, its limited personnel, and the variety of duties imposed upon the training officers not only limits field inspections but has prevented any formal evaluation. The evaluation of the unit training program by the staff of this project has been generalized and somewhat subjective. Nevertheless, sufficient data have been gathered, subjected to scrutiny and discussion, and analyzed to permit some tentative conclusions and recommendations.

Unit Training Program in Other Departments

Inservice training programs similar to the New York City unit training program were found to be operating in several other police agencies. While there was great variety in these programs and some were suitable for local conditions, only one was found innovative and outstanding. That is the rollcall training of the Chicago Police Department. As a matter of department policy, every police officer in Chicago receives a 30-minute rollcall training session prior to every tour of duty on all tours, 7 days a week. The half hour is built into work schedules so that adequate patrol coverage is maintained at all times. The origin of the program is not unlike that in New York City. In 1962, Superintendent O. W. Wilson recognized the need for an inservice training program at the unit level. He provided $7,000 for a feasibility study of the use of closed-circuit television for unit training sessions. The study indicated that the $2 million cost of implementation was excessive. The use of 16-millimeter movies was also explored, but the cost and versatility of this media also proved unrealistic.

The program recommended as a result of that study was a 35-millimeter color film strip program with synchronized audio narrative. A tentative agreement was reached with the International Association of Chiefs of Police that Chicago would produce the film strips and the IACP would distribute them nationally. The IACP subsequently withdrew from the tentative agreement, however, primarily because they felt that national distribution of a training media should not be identifiable with a specific police department. Since that time the IACP has marketed its "Sight and Sound" film strips program which utilizes drawings and cartoons with synchronized narrative, rather than photographic slides.

The Chicago Police Department proceeded to develop its 10-minute film strips, writing the scripts and doing the photography, but contracting privately for the development, technical processing, and duplication of the films. The publications unit of the Chicago Police Department, staffed with four sworn personnel, two civilians, and two police cadets has been producing a film a month, as well as writing training bulletins, rotating the film strips on a weekly basis to the 30 units throughout the department, and servicing the projectors at each unit. A 10-minute sight-sound film strip uses between 80 and 100 35-millimeter slides, of which eight to 10 are used for the opening and closing sequences. About 98 percent of these slides are color photographs. The other 2 percent is art work, such as maps, charts, and drawings. The film contains an audio track, synchronizing the narrative to the slides. The track also contains inaudible codes which automate the entire program. Thus, once turning the "on" switch, nothing further need be done. The projector turns itself off at the conclusion of the program.

The department has completed 31 film productions and has purchased an additional 18 animated film strips from the IACP's "Sight and Sound" program. Some of the titles include: "Responding to a Felony in Progress," "Handling the Traffic

Violator," "Protecting the Crime Scene," "Gathering Information," "Juvenile Delinquency on the Beat," "Stopping the Felony Suspect," "The Mechanics of Arrest," "Hit and Run Investigation," "Basic Patrol Techniques," "Motorized Patrol," "Use of the Baton and Handcuffs," "Combat Shooting," "Use of the Baton in Crowd Control," "Come-Along Holds," "Auto Theft," "Emergency Vehicle Operation," "Traffic Direction," "Robbery Investigation," "Modus Operandi," "Winter Driving," "National Crime Information Center," "Physical Fitness." The film strips purchased from the IACP include: "Felony in Progress Calls," "Searching Arrested Persons," "Principles of Investigation," "Traffic Violators," "Rescue Breathing," "Crime Scene Procedures," "Testifying in Court," "Directing Traffic," "Field Inquiry," "Crime Prevention," "Stopping Felony Suspects," "Handling Disturbance Calls," "Aggressive Patrol," "Crowd Control," "The Accident Scene."

These film strips, along with a review sheet, are distributed to the various police units for rollcall training. The format of these sessions is as follows. Following rollcall, assignment, and inspection, the 10-minute film strip is presented. The sergeant in charge of the out-going platoon then devotes another 10 minutes to a discussion of the film and its application to local problems. The final 10 minutes may be used to discuss training bulletins, recent changes in the law, court decisions, and department policy. The unit commander may also utilize that 10-minute period for other training needs.

Chicago has no unit training sergeants. Rather, every sergeant has the responsibility to conduct these rollcall training sessions on a rotating basis. Not only do all sergeants receive an inservice training course on the techniques of instruction and the carrying out of their training responsibilities, but each is given 4 hours a week for research and preparation of training materials for the following week's presentation. According to Chicago's director of training, Robert E. McCann, the program has been well received by the rank and file and is one of the most effective training devices in use in the Chicago Police Department.

Improvement of the Unit Training Program

The specialized training now given to detectives and plainclothes candidates, youth division, and emergency service personnel, the career development program which offers promotion materials to assist those aspiring to higher rank and responsibility, the prepromotion courses which prepare those about to be promoted to assume their new responsibilities, the command courses and executive development courses which prepare superior officers to provide leadership and command, and other inservice training programs are necessary for the purposes they serve. None of these, however, provide any training for the patrol and safety forces in the field, which amount to perhaps 70 percent of the department's strength. These are the men who are in daily contact with the public and who are faced with frequent decisionmaking situations each day. How can the department meet their needs in the years to come?

In general, the unit training program is a good one, but it is lacking in several essentials. Inasmuch as the department provides no centralized inservice training for field forces on a regular basis, such as in many other police agencies where all officers are brought into the training facility for several days to several weeks each year, the unit training program is essentially the only technique in use within the department for refresher training, for updating of policies and procedures, and for keeping the force current on developments, both in police technology and community life.

The research staff of this project has considered a recommendation of the President's Commission that all law enforcement officers have at least 1 week of intensive inservice training each year and has concluded that, while some training is needed, it was impossible to determine precisely how much. One full week may not be necessary. However, it seems that the unit training program as presently constituted, in and of itself, is incapable of meeting the field force's inservice training needs. Either the program must be improved and expanded or other methods must be introduced to supplement it.

The latter possibility was explored and consideration was given to correspondence courses similar to Chicago's "Extension Courses." An extension unit was created in the Chicago Police Academy to administer their program, which covers a wide variety of subject matter organized into short courses, some of which are mandatory for all members of the force and others voluntary. The extension unit provides those interested with a course workbook, which becomes the property of the student, and a set of questions to be answered and returned. Extension unit personnel grade these questions and if a 70 percent grade or better is attained, a second list of questions is sent to the student. This process continues until the officer has satisfactorily answered the 100 questions prepared for each course. The completion of a course is entered in the personnel folder of the officer and he is given a certificate of completion. A member of the force may take as many courses as he desires. The relevance of these materials, both for police performance and promotion purposes, plus the certificate and use of personnel folders in assignments provides the men with sufficient motivation to pursue these courses. The commanding officer of the Chicago Police Academy reports that the program has met with unqualified success, in terms of the large numbers of men who have taken these courses and completed them satisfactorily, and the demand for new courses and requests for participation from other police agencies.

One problem with a program such as this, however, is that it requires a substantial staff for research, preparation of materials, grading, correspondence, and general administration. If a staff of 12 is needed in Chicago, perhaps 30 or more would be needed in New York City. Also, not every member of the force receives instruction, only those who are sufficiently motivated to apply. The Chicago Police Department reaches everyone, however, through their regular inservice training programs, which bring all members in the field back to the police academy for a week of training each year.

The staff of this project favors the expansion of the unit training program over a supplementary program. With the Police Academy currently handling a record number of recruits, there is no facility available for centralized training of large numbers of men. Centralized training has the disadvantages of a significant amount of man hours lost in traveling to and from the central facility and the need to concentrate on general subject matter rather than on the problems and needs of local areas. Every program requires some administrative overhead. It is more practical and economical to enlarge a program with an existing administrative structure than to create new ones. While the present unit training program is inadequate, it has the potential of filling most of the patrol force's training needs, general and local, because of its efficiency, flexibility and basically sound decentralized structure, if it were improved and expanded to carry out the monumental task of retraining some 25,000 men each year. The present program devotes 1 hour each month to nine unit training sessions with 1-hour repeats during the summer months. Twelve hours of retraining each year is hardly adequate for the social and technological revolution taking place at this time.

If the unit training program is to meet the department's inservice training needs, several basic changes are necessary with respect to the unit training sergeants presently assigned to field commands. Unit training sergeants should be permanently assigned to the academy and detailed to field commands, where they would carry out their responsibilities in a staff capacity. Consistent with recommendations in another part of this report for professional status for all instructors, unit training sergeants would be given such status. Thus, they would not only participate in the production of unit training telecasts and unit training memos, but would conduct two daily unit training sessions instead of one, prepare and mimeograph precinct training bulletins, brief the outgoing and incoming platoons when necessary, prepare instructional memos with regard to special precinct problems or specific post conditions, administer the recommended escort training program, supervise the recommended film loop program, relay instructions from the precinct commanders in their absence, identify training needs in collaboration with other superior officers, and make certain that all outgoing officers are aware of what has transpired on their posts during the time they were off duty.

It does not seem unreasonable to this project staff that sergeants (and lieutenants) be given full-time training duties and professional status, considering the training needs in the field and the number of men to be trained. The average manpower in each of the city's 77 patrol precincts exceeds 206 men and the average of the 10 safety commands exceeds 133 men. Greater responsibility for research, the development of curriculums, innovation in instruction, testing, and discipline require full-time assignments for training officers.

During the course of this study, some reactions expressed to this project staff indicated that assignments to the Police Academy of unit training sergeants who would be detailed to field commands might not be sound policy. Such a system might imply that the entire training function is the responsibility of the academy alone, and that superior officers in field commands no longer have responsibility for training subordinates. This situation exists now; the presence of unit training sergeants in certain commands leaves some superior officers with the impression that they need provide no training. This notion should be easy to dispel. It is perfectly proper for a training academy with broad resources to reach out to enlarge its training programs in order to provide field commands with the benefits of its expertise without diminishing the responsibilities of others in this area. The unit training sergeant assigned to the academy and detailed to a precinct can provide training materials to other superiors in the command and encourage ongoing training of patrolmen. Training bulletins, departmental directives, and rules and procedures would remind all superiors from time to time of their training responsibilities. The twice-a-year personnel evaluation of all superior officers by their commanders includes a consideration of training efforts; this could be emphasized.

Some interviewees suggested that many sergeants are not qualified to teach, may not be the best teachers, and do not represent a broad enough viewpoint. These individuals suggested the use of civilian instructors in the inservice training program. The staff of this project recognizes the need for civilian instructors in the recruit training process, but do not feel that inservice unit training is a proper place for this innovation. Nevertheless, there is reason to question the qualifications of some sergeants to teach and this situation must be corrected by better selection methods and a better methods of instruction course. Presently, not all instructors have had a methods of instruction course and many who have did not take it until months after their assignments as instructors. The quality of instruction and the professional status recommended for unit training sergeants demand a minimum 2 to 3 week course.

The number of unit training sessions should be at least doubled—to 24 hours a year—with fewer repeats and better quality presentations. Sessions should be conducted not only from 4 to 5 p.m. on weekdays (excluding Fridays), but also from 8 to 9 a.m. for the 8–4 tour. Not only is the morning hour a quiet one in terms of calls for police service, but the men are fresh and more responsive at that time. Thus, with two squads of men receiving an hour of instruction from 4 to 5 p.m. and another two squads from 8 to 9 a.m. each day, every squad will have two 1-hour sessions each month. This should be considered an absolute minimum.

There will be a need to adjust the working hours of the unit training sergeants. The problem with the 9-hour days (i.e., 8 a.m. to 5 p.m.) can be resolved in one of at least two ways. Training sergeants can work four 10-hour days Monday through Thursday from 7:30 a.m. to 5:30 p.m. (there are no unit training sessions on Fridays) or five 9-hour days Monday through Friday from 8 a.m. to 5 p.m. with two Fridays off each month for lost time. The former suggestion offers the advantage of having the training sergeants present at the coming and/or going of all three tours each day. Their absence on a Friday, when there would be no unit training sessions, is not crucial.

It is recommended that all field sergeants be scheduled by their commanding officers to attend the two 1-hour training sessions each month. This is deemed important for several reasons. Sergeants should have the benefit of inservice training. It is important that they know what training is being provided to assist them in their own training responsibilities, supervision, and recognition of training needs. It will indicate to all the importance of these training sessions. In the absence of the training sergeants on vacation or other days off, it may be necessary that field sergeants be required to fill in on a rotating basis. The unit training sessions will provide the exposure and experience to enable all field sergeants to carry out the assignments when necessary.

The 24 unit training sessions recommended for each year are the equivalent of 3½ full days of training. While this is twice as much as presently received, it is insufficient because of the breadth of subject matter that needs to be reviewed each year, public demands for better quality police service, and the inadequacy of 1-hour training sessions to cover certain materials. Initially, it is recommended that all patrolmen and sergeants assigned to patrol precincts and safety commands receive 1 full day of training at a suitable location within their patrol divisions or safety districts. Such sessions would be conducted by all the unit training sergeants (or lieutenants) detailed within that division or district, under the supervision of the division or district commander. This would have the advantages of bringing men from different commands together for a fuller appreciation of one another's problems, enabling the commanding officers to reach large numbers of men on a face-to-face basis, and enabling adequate coverage of subject matter which could not be covered in the 1-hour local sessions. After experience has reduced the scheduling problems and other "bugs" in the system, the program might be expanded to two or three such full day sessions each year as the need arises.

It is desirable that at each training session copies of the unit training memos or other printed or mimeographed handout materials be distributed to each of the officers. A review of such materials shortly after a training session reinforces the learning process and generates discussion. Production of these handouts, training bulletins, and other instructional materials would be one of the new responsibilities of the training sergeant. A Mimeograph machine would be required in each field command.

It is essential that all instructors have broad field experience and not be limited to a theoretical orientation. They must get back on the street periodically so that they will be practitioners. Ideally, the unit training sergeant would rotate from his field assignment to the academy where he might teach recruits or other inservice training courses for a time before returning once again to a field assignment. The regular academy staff would likewise be rotated to a patrol or safety command for training duties. Such instructors need not be rotated to the same field command each time but might be detailed to different commands for broader experience. Rotations should be made no more frequently than once in 6 months nor less frequently than every 2 years. This will enable unit training sergeants (and lieutenants) to acquire a good knowledge of their field commands yet prevent stagnation in the academy.

This procedure would solve a serious paperwork problem. Presently, the regular Police Academy staff is very limited. Most instructors are assigned to field commands and temporarily detailed to the academy when there is a need. This requires a written request to the police commissioner. If the need prevails the detail must be renewed in writing again. Not only are instructors shunted back and forth between their field assignment and the academy, but a large amount of time is spent in writing requests, processing them, and publishing orders for all such movements. The permanent assignment of a larger instructional staff to the academy would obviate the need for much of this paperwork, yet keep the majority of the staff in the field on a rotating basis as training sergeants. This procedure should apply to lieutenant instructors as well. Their rotation would pose no problems in the field where they would serve as unit training lieutenants.

The director of education and training, recommended in section 5.5 of chapter 5 of this report, would have primary responsibility for the education and training programs throughout the department. He would monitor the unit training program, recommending periodic adjustments to meet growing needs. While the unit training program has never been formally evaluated by the department, the proposed broader program as carried out by training sergeants would require ongoing evaluation. Full-time training sergeants could facilitate such evaluation through once a month meetings of all training sergeants at the academy; the establishment of committees of training sergeants to develop evaluation instruments; and committees that would research training problems, devise policy recommendations and generally enhance the training program. The full-time unit training sergeant should be released from his many administrative duties. However, it is recommended that training sergeants perform all police duty in uniform and be required to do precinct patrol on foot or in a marked vehicle for a minimum of 2 hours each day. This will not only keep him in touch with field conditions but enable him to observe performance, identify training needs, and instruct the men on the beat.

Innovations

It is not necessary that each unit training session be designed around a telecast. A well-trained instructor can certainly develop an interesting 1-hour program, given the time and the incentive. Summer month telecasts should not be reruns unless they are particularly relevant. When new telecasts are not available and all relevant reruns have been televised, training sergeants should innovate and develop interesting and meaningful hour sessions without reverting to telecasts. The training officer might, for example, invite precinct detectives, local school principals, local school board members or school officials, civic groups, PTA officers, local clergymen, activist group representatives, and other community personages to special training sessions. The possibility of moving the training sessions to another location for a relevant training program should be explored. Promotional materials might be introduced, thereby providing a self rewarding type of motivation at these training sessions. Also, training sergeants might introduce skits or role-playing by members of the force where appropriate. The acting out of police situations using personnel of various ethnic backgrounds allows observers to relate to the training and provides a more interesting vehicle for discussion. A session might be designed around the film loop projector. Much depends on the ability and the imagination of the training sergeant, who with a professional status will begin to innovate and help assure the success of the program.

It is recommended that all subject matter used in unit training sessions be forwarded to the department of personnel on a regular basis by the commanding officer, Police Academy, with a request that such materials be considered as subject matter for questions on promotional examinations to the ranks of sergeant and lieutenant. This fact should be publicized in order to stimulate greater interest and to provide motivation for active participation by trainees rather than merely passive attendance.

With 24 instead of 12 unit training sessions a year, it is recommended that there be from 12 to 16 telecasts and eight to 12 sessions without telecasts, which would utilize lectures, guests, discussions, and demonstrations. This will require a small increase in the academy staff assigned to the unit training program as well as a change in the operating agreement with WNYC-TV. More telecasts will be produced and more research will be needed for the preparation of scripts and the greater number of unit training sessions.

Some subject areas which were suggested by interviewees for inclusion in the telecast programs are: first aid training; combat firearms refresher; physical fitness/calorie diet programs; interviewing and information gathering techniques; principles of investigation and investigative techniques; and modus operandi of common crimes. These subjects are relevant and have not been covered in prior telecasts. Equally important as the subject matter is the method of instruction. The telecast which preaches at the men by utilizing the straight lecture technique is least desirable.

The programs should be made more interesting by using movie films with story lines or presenting dramatic plays which present problems or conflicts (the following discussion periods would seek solutions to the problems exposed in the presentation); the use of slide photographs, graphics and other visual aids; and the use of discussion groups in problem-solving sessions. An occasional guest lecturer, where such person is a well known authority in his field, and the introduction of some subtle but dignified humor are other attention-getting techniques which make for interest. All such methods must be fully employed to keep interest high and to maximize learning.

Training Bulletin

The academy has published a training bulletin for about 13 years entitled "Police Academy Bulletin for Superior Officers," which is distributed principally to sergeants, lieutenants, and other superiors. Originally conceived of as a monthly publication, in no year have more than 10 issues been published. In recent years the number of issues has been:

1964	10	1967	7
1965	6	1968	4
1966	7	1969	0

In the early 1960's through 1966 a sergeant or lieutenant at the academy was solely responsible for this publication, having no other duties. Since then the sergeant having this responsibility has a host of others which accounts for only four issues in 1968 and none in 1969 (as of October 1). He could publish 12 issues a year without assistance if relieved of other duties, and 52 a year with assistance from unit training sergeants.

The bulletin is received in the field with mixed feelings. Many regard it as study material for promotion examinations; a few accept it as a means of self-improvement; a smaller number regard it as a management tool for improved supervision, leadership, and professionalism. Most of those interviewed would prefer a larger edition of the bulletin on a more regular basis.

The Training Bulletin of the Chicago Police Department began in the early 1960's under O. W. Wilson. It is a weekly publication of four pages, although on occasion extra bulletins are published and size increased to as many as eight pages. A sergeant is assigned exclusively to this task with clerical assistance. The bulletins are appropriately numbered and dated and are issued in looseleaf form for ease of maintenance and study to every member of the department. It is attractive in format and makes good use of graphs, charts, tables, and photographs, as well as reference to department regulations, city and State laws. It is more readable and useful than the bulletin produced by the New York City Police Department.

While not a priority matter, it is appropriate that a training bulletin be published as a training aid within the academy. The potential for training purposes, as well as for promotion, study, education, self-improvement, and professionalization is great. It is, therefore, recommended that a committee of unit training sergeants be established, chaired by the superior officer assigned to publish the bulletin. Their function would be to determine the optimum number of issues to be published, format, size, use of pictorials, content, distribution, and so forth. The superior designated as editor should be relieved of most other responsibilities. He would assign topics from time to time to all unit training sergeants, who would make the major written contributions for the publication. The minimum number of issues each year should be 12 and distribution should be departmentwide, not limited to superior officers. Clerical assistance, lack of which has been a primary factor for the past 2 years, is essential. A quality bulletin will require a vari-typist.

12.3 Mandatory Advanced Training for Superior Officers

While the unit training program described in the previous section is the major inservice training thrust for patrolmen, superior officers require a sequence of advanced training programs of several types. Members of the department on promotional lists for sergeant, lieutenant, and captain are required to take a prepromotion course. Patrolmen and policewomen assigned to specialized units as youth officers, criminal investigators (detectives) are required to take specialized courses. Sergeants assigned as unit training officers in precincts have available to them a specialized course which was commented upon in the previous section of this chapter. Lieutenants assigned as administrative aides take a management training course. A course in report writing is available to patrolmen, detectives, and sergeants. A sequence of command courses, A, B, C, and D, are offered for appropriate ranks. The dimensions of the present inservice effort within the department are reflected by the statistic that about 31,000 members of the department attended 40 courses during 1968 involving over 300,000 study hours. The prepromotion course for sergeant was lengthened to 6 weeks in 1968 and introduced improvements in course content and teaching methods. A new course in management development was introduced, intended primarily for sergeants awaiting promotion to the rank of lieutenant. In the police structure the sergeant is the first level of supervision and the the lieutenant is the first level of management. Consequently, it was felt appropriate to make available to the men about to embark on the tasks of lieutenant an understanding of management principles and practices.

The syllabus for the 70-hour prepromotion to lieutenant course as currently taught includes the following topics:

Syllabus for Middle Management 1 Course	*Hours*
I. Management Theory and Practice	
Functions of the manager	1½
The control function	1½
Seminar: Police professionalism	1½
Seminar: Technological developments and their impact on the police	1½
Workshop: The desk officer: Organizational impediments to effective command	1½
II. Communications in Management	
Communications: The key to directing	1½
Conference leadership techniques	6
Guidelines for impromptu talks	1½
Report writing	1½
The desk officer and the touchtone phone	1½
III. Administrative Analysis	
Research techniques	1½
Organizing: The functional organization—line and staff relationships	1½
Organizing: Important Tools	3
Library research	5
Panel discussions: Current police related articles and books	5
IV. Decisionmaking	
Decisionmaking theory and practice	4½

	Hours
Seminar: Politics and the police—an environmental factor in decisionmaking	1½
Seminar: Changing social mores—an environmental factor in decisionmaking	3
V. Getting Work Done	
Seminar: The organization as a social system	1½
Employee development: Creating a climate for learning	1½
Seminar: How to get work done: Theories of motivation, behavior, and leadership	1½
The supervisor as a trainer: Making the most of rollcall training	1½
Planning the supervisors time	1½
Buzz session: The first-line supervisor, does he really do the job?	1½
Seminar: Line organizations and their impact on police operations	1½
Discussion group: The Walker report—a breakdown in police leadership	1½
VI. The Police and the Community	
Police ethics	1½
Symposium: Community relations problems at the operations level	1½
The police and constitutional rights	1½
Symposium: The police and the generation gap	1½
Role playing: A Campus encounter	1½
Role playing: A station house encounter	1½
An evaluation conference: How good are our plans for civil disorders?	1½
VII. General	
Welcome and orientation	1½
Course evaluation and critique	1½

Officers being assigned as administrative aide lieutenants were offered a management training program somewhat different in its thrust. The curriculum in this program is currently as follows:

MANAGEMENT TRAINING PROGRAM FOR ADMINISTRATIVE LIEUTENANTS

1. *The role of the city manager in meeting the needs of the New York community today* (seven 3-hour seminars).
   Objective:
   To give the manager a chance to define and understand his role and to become aware of the ways in which his job contributes to the objectives of the city government and the welfare of the community.
   Course description:
   The course examines the social, cultural, historical, political, geographic, and economic characteristics of the city, its communities and its peoples. It discusses some of the major objectives of city government and ways in which the manager contributes to these objectives.
2. *Human factors in management* (eight 3-hour seminars).
   Objective:
   This course is aimed at promoting the most effective use of the human resources of the organization and in instilling in the manager and through him in his subordinates a willingness to serve the community.
   Course description:
   Among the topics covered are theories of motivation, individual and group behavior, effects of organizational structure on behavior, leadership patterns, employee appraisal and discipline, and development of subordinates.
3. *Making management decisions* (six 3-hour seminars).
   Objective:
   To assist managers to recognize real problems, rather than the symptoms, and to use systematic approaches in devising useful solutions.
   Course description:
   The course describes and applies a systematic approach to decision making, examines the development and evaluation of alternatives, and provides techniques for increasing creativity and encouraging creativeness in subordinates.

The following is a summary of the advanced and specialized inservice courses which have been offered by the Police Academy during the last two years:

Summary—Advanced and specialized training 1968 and 1969 (to October 15)

Course	Year	Last date	Number held	Number of students
School crossing	1969	Oct. 2 1969	4	546
Guards	1968		6	507
Civilian promotions	1969	March, 1969	1	21
	1968		1	25
Youth course	1969		1	......
	1968	1968	1	168
Disorder control	1969	Sept. 15, 1969	1	3,733
	1968		1	4,961
Detective squad	1969		1	......
Administrative aide	1968	1968	1	80
Fingerprint technician	1969		1	......
	1968	1968	1	40
Precinct receptionist	1969		1	......
	1968	1968	1	8
Command post	1969	Sept. 29, 1969	1	664

Course	Year	Last date	Number held	Number of students
Exercise	1968		1	75
Latent fingerprints	1969	March 3, 1969	1	250
	1968		1	600
Police and schools	1969	Oct. 15, 1969	2	460
In-service (public school teachers)	1968		2	448
Retail security for detectives	1969	March 3 1969	1	24
	1968		[1]	......
Programed management	1969	May, 1969	1	50
	1968		[1]	......
Management course for administrative aides	1969	July 1, 1969	2	37
	1968		[1]	......
Introductory course for probation officer	1969	March 10, 1969	1	20
	1968		[1]	......
Pre-promotion to lieutenant	1969	May, 1969	1	30
	1968		[1]	......
Precinct unit training	1969	Oct. 15, 1969	7	14,000
	1968		8	14,000
Patrolman-detective refresher	1969	Sept. 8, 1969	1	4,889
	1968		1	4,296
Command A and B	1969	Sept. 22, 1969	3	1,766
	1968		1	813
Command C	1969		[1]	......
	1968		[1]	......
Command D	1969		[1]	......
	1968		[1]	......
Command E (pre-promotion to sergeant)	1969	Oct. 15, 1969	6	344
	1968		7	453
Career development	1969	Oct. 15, 1969	2	1,900
	1968		2	1,200
Criminal investigation	1969	Sept. 22, 1969	4	287
	1968		8	467
Methods of instruction	1969	Oct. 15, 1969	2	81
	1968		[1]	......
Criminal investigation narcotics course	1969	Oct. 15, 1969	3	138
	1968		1	15
Managerial techniques	1969	Oct. 15, 1969	1	75
	1968		[1]	......
Sprint typing course (communications unit)	1969	Oct. 10, 1969	1	600
	1968		[1]	......
Sprint for operation personnel	1969	July 21, 1969	1	45
	1968		[1]	......
Command control touch tone telephone for desk officers and unit training sergeants	1969	Oct. 15, 1969	1	26
	1968		[1]	......
Civilian observers course for precinct disorders and complaints	1969	Aug. 11, 1969	1	388
	1968		[1]	......
Precinct unit training sergeants seminar	1969	Sept. 15, 1969	1	100
	1968		[1]	......
Training family crisis for police academy recruits	1969	Sept. 22, 1969	1	400
	1968		[1]	......

[1] Not given.

On September 25, 1969, announcement was made of the management development program within the department which reflects new thinking in the area of inservice training. The development of this program is consistent with the concepts of advanced training in management advocated by the research staff of this project. It represents an appropriate implementation of the staff's thoughts.

The management development program is described in a chief of personnel's memo as having the following objectives:

> The objectives of the program are to promote a management awareness among superior officers and civilian supervisors at all levels; to equip all such supervisors to efficiently and effectively carry out their current management roles; and in particular, to permit and foster the development of superiors demonstrating high management potential.

The major courses offered or planned are as follows:

LEVEL I—BASIC AND INTRODUCTORY MANAGEMENT COURSES

Career development course
Supervisory practices and techniques
Management techniques course
Programmed management course
How to plan and organize work
Principles of management

LEVEL II—ADVANCED MANAGEMENT AND SPECIAL AREA COURSES

Middle management I
Middle management II
Administrative analysis
Middle management program, New York City Department of Personnel
Effective decisionmaking
Making the computer work for management

LEVEL III—EXECUTIVE SEMINARS AND COURSES

Executive course: Command and control
Executive course: Joint police-National Guard operation
Executive seminar: Problems in urban police administration
Executive seminar: The organizational environment

This structure reflects an effective and rational rearrangement of the existing pattern of inservice work. Particular attention should be directed to the programed management course which is a home study course. Also, the effective decisionmaking course is structured as a programed home study course. This is a 4-hour course, the brevity of which raises some question. A similar course on making the computer work for management will also be available on a home study basis. These three programed instruction courses make use of instructional material prepared by agencies other than the department. Ultimately, in accordance with the recommendations of this project, new materials should be prepared by the educational materials development unit at the academy.

Major progress has been made in the planning of a logical sequence of inservice courses. Implementation is another matter. Previous experience suggests that without an effective commitment from the department these programs cannot be offered on a systematic basis nor can the training be carried out in an uninterrupted manner. At the highest level of management training, that is, command course A, it would seem appropriate to utilize an executive training technique such as is familiar in business. One example is the IBM Executive Training Center at Sands Point, which was visited by staff of this project, where those in training live on the training site in a training environment and spend all their waking hours in an educational process. It is recommended that the 20–30 officers enrolled in command course A be taken to Sands Point or to some other appropriate facility for a week with a small instructional staff. The attractiveness of the physical setting would make possible the recruiting of special guest lecturers from other law enforcement agencies, the business and academic communities, as well as leaders in government. It is recommended that a program involving an experimental group of this type be structured and funding be sought from government and/or private foundations.

FBI Training Services for Police Agencies

Members of the research staff of this project have given considerable attention to the training program of the Federal Bureau of Investigation. While special agents of the Bureau meet higher standards for appointment than most police officers and perform different types of duties, the Bureau provides several general training services to police agencies. Two of these are the national academy and police management schools.

In more than 35 years the FBI National Academy in Washington, D.C., has trained almost 6,000 law enforcement officers in what can be described as the most comprehensive police refresher course conducted in the United States. In classes of approximately 100 experienced police officers of various ranks, twice each year, the 12-week program covers a broad curriculum in great detail. The curriculum of the 81st session in the spring of 1968 is typical:

Courses	*Hours*
Criminal law and court procedures (17 subjects)	56
Investigations and case preparation (6 subjects)	26
Management and policy (23 subjects)	77
Social psychology (9 subjects)	35
Sociology (9 subjects)	39
Education (6 subjects)	42
Physical training	33
Firearms training	44
Vocational training (3 subjects)	58
Criminalistics and scientific examinations (8 subjects)	13
Identification techniques (3 subjects)	10
Total	433

The balance of the program, some 40 hours, includes field trips, demonstrations, and administrative details. There is no charge for the course.

The instructors include the most experienced and best trained special agents in the Bureau, including lawyers, sociologists, criminologists, laboratory technicians, etc. Visiting guest lecturers include judges from various courts, police chiefs and other high-ranking professionals, university professors, and executives from other Federal agencies. The lecture format is predominant, but is liberally sprinkled with movies slides, overhead projectors using a variety of audiovisual aids, demonstrations, and seminars. A top quality curriculum utilizing modern methods and the best instructors available has earned for the National Academy the reputation of the "West Point of Law Enforcement." A new National Academy building is under construction in Quantico, Va., scheduled for fall 1970 occupancy. This ultramodern training complex will house, feed, and train 2,000 students a year. Under a new policy to be effective with the first class in the new building, the Bureau will pay all travel and subsistence costs for every man, as well as providing the training.

Because of far-reaching changes in management concepts and techniques, the FBI expanded its field training program several years ago to include police management schools. Well trained special agents, experts in management and human relations, travel throughout the country conducting management schools for local law enforcement agencies on request. The curriculums for these schools include lectures, seminars, and problem-solving sessions on such topics as introduction to management, police planning, police organization principles, evaluation of personnel, personnel management, supervision, executive development, recruitment and selection of policemen and cadets, human relations in management, administrative devices and controls, inspections, and decisionmaking.

Classes of 25 to 30 supervisory and executive level students are organized on 4 to 6 months' advance notice. The entire curriculum is covered in 5 full days on location by a two-man instructional team, who tailor the course to the particular police agency. There are no costs for the police agency. In the New York City area such schools have been given to the transit authority police, the Nassau and Suffolk County Police Departments. Spring sessions in 1970 are scheduled for the housing authority police and the Westchester County Police. Additional schools for the Nassau and Suffolk County police are to be given shortly. Several police officials who took the course were interviewed by the project staff and praised it highly.

It is not known why this department has not taken advantage of these management schools, but they have never been given here. Some police officials appear to feel that this department is self-sufficient enough so that it need not seek outside assistance. Certainly this project report indicates a need for more management training, particularly at middle management levels (lieutenant, captain, deputy inspector, and inspector). The department regularly sends members of the force to the national academy and other FBI-sponsored conferences, seminars, and programs. In many respects the department is truly self-sufficient, having available the greatest human and material resources of any municipal police department in the Nation. Nevertheless, it has never hesitated to seek assistance from wherever it was available, when needed. It is therefore recommended that the department arrange, through the chief of personnel, to invite the FBI management team into the Police Academy to conduct a sufficient number of sessions to reach every captain, deputy inspector, and inspector who has not already had a comprehensive management course (perhaps half of the almost 400 officers at these ranks). Lieutenants are already beginning to receive adequate training in this area through the recently introduced programed management course and prepromotion to lieutenant course. All lieutenants assigned as administrative aides have also received a course designed for that purpose, the lieutenant administrative aide management course.

12.4 Collegiate Educational Requirements for Department Members

The President's Commission recommended a 4-year baccalaureate degree for all police officers with general enforcement powers. It may be recalled that the Commission urged three levels of entrance into a police department: community service officer, police officer, and police agent. These recommendations are not relevant here since no recommendation is being made that new categories for entrance be established. In fact, there is very little evidence that law enforcement agencies have reacted favorably to the Commission's concepts in this respect. (The Baltimore, Md., Police Department, however, has created the category of police agent and requires a college degree for appointment to this new rank.) For the purpose of this report the assumption is made that all police officers will continue to enter the department on the basis of existing standards. The Commission also suggested that baccalaureate degree requirements be established for all supervisory and executive positions and that encouragement be offered to police officers to pursue a collegiate education. The Commission had in mind scholarship loan support and curriculum development to guide college police science programs away from a narrow educational concentration. Graduate training in law and in business administration was recommended for police executives to be obtained either through degree courses or special institutions.

The Berkeley, Calif., Police Department is believed to have been the first police agency in the United States to require some collegiate education as a preentrance requirement Only a few police departments have followed its lead. However, a number of police agencies have instituted, or cooperated in the institution of college degree programs. The International Association of Chiefs of Police and other professional police organizations have urged the development of college degree programs. Some departments permit their men to attend college courses on police department time, some provide extra pay or a bonus for completion of a number of college credits and others give preferential assignments to those attending and completing college programs. An article by Thompson S. Crockett and John Moses, in the August 1969 issue of the Police Chief, summarizes the incentive plans adopted by law enforcement agencies in connection with college programs (The data in this article were extracted from the 1968 IACP training survey reports.) The best summary of existing college programs is found in the report prepared by Thompson S. Crockett for the IACP in 1968 entitled, "Law Enforcement Education." This report identified 261 law enforcement degree programs in 234 separate educational institutions in the United States. These 261 programs included 199 associate degree programs, 44 leading to the baccaulaureate degree, 13 to the master's degree and five to the doctorate This burgeoning of collegiate police programs has been a response to two major factors. In the first place the availability of collegiate programs, particularly those involving an incentive arrangement, is a stimulus to recruiting. In this sense the collegiate programs are essentially significant in terms of personal achievement by the individual police officer. In the second place, police commanders have recognized the need for higher level of education than can be provided through a police academy or other departmental education and training organization.

In the New York City Police Department there was a direct involvement with collegiate type training immediately prior to World War II through the City College of New York. This was not, however, a degree program but did represent an "affiliation" of the academy with the City College. In 1954 as a result of the initiative of Police Commissioner Francis H. Adams and with the active support of subsequent Police Commissioners, Stephen P. Kennedy and Michael J. Murphy, a formal affiliation of the academy with the Bernard M. Baruch School of Business and Public Administration of the City College of New York was arranged. In this program (called the police science program) the academic component of the recruit training curriculum was accepted for college credit and department personnel teaching the academic subjects held a joint appointment as members of the instructional staff of the college. Arrangements were made to offer course work on a schedule of day and evening classes permitting attendance by members of the department irrespective of their duty schedules. The first classes were offered in the fall of 1955 and were tuition free for those students qualifying as matriculated students in the City College. Others paid modest fees. This program developed into the College of Police Science and later into the John Jay College of Criminal Justice, an independent senior college within the City University of New York structure. Enrollment now exceeds 2,600 of which the overwhelming majority are members of the New York City Police Department with substantial attendance from other law enforcement agencies and a sprinkling of civilian students. As a consequence of these arrangements hundreds of members of the department have been able to achieve college degrees which their duty schedules would not otherwise permit. During 1968 a total of 1,342 members of the force were enrolled in the John Jay College in undergraduate courses and another 127 were enrolled in the graduate program. (Six were taking graduate work at the Bernard M. Baruch College.) Quantitatively, this college program is by far the largest such program in the United States and, at least in its initial phases, had a unique relationship with the department in terms of day-to-day joint operations. At no time, however, did the department give any direct incentive, such as promotional credit, bonus payments or the like to members enrolled in the college program. The closest that the department moved in this direction was the statement, approved by the three police commissioners mentioned above, that "It has been a policy of the department to keep a permanent record of course enrollments and records. Consideration will be given to educational records in making assignments within the police department." In section 2.3 of chapter 2, a table was included reflecting the educational achievements of members of the department. It is well to bear in mind that the strength of the department is in excess of 30,000, so that the number with degrees is large in absolute numbers but small percentagewise.

In addition to the availability to the members of the department of college programs at the John Jay College, leave is granted with pay, under special circumstances, to members of the force who have won scholarships or fellowships for advanced degrees. A sergeant is now working toward his master's degree at the School of Criminal Justice of the State University of New York in Albany, a lieutenant is enrolled in the master's degree program for police administration at Michigan State University, and a detective is studying for his master's degree in criminology at the University of California. In addition, department policy involves the assignment of selected members of the force to specialized institutes, as well as to the National Academy of the FBI. There are available a number of full and partial scholarships at the John Jay College and a number of individual scholarships at other educational institutions in New York City, including one providing a full scholarship toward the doctor's degree in public administration at New York University. A breakdown of enrollment at the John Jay College in the fall semester of 1967 showed a distribution of department members enrolled as students as follows:

New York City Police Department members enrolled in the John Jay College, fall 1967

Deputy chief inspector	2
Inspector	2
Deputy Inspector	9
Captain	31
Lieutenant	65
Sergeant	147
Detective	98
Patrolman	919
Policewoman	18
Trainee	189
Total	1,480

The first police agency in New York State to introduce a college degree requirement was the Nassau County Police Department. Police Commissioner Francis D. Looney has announced that as of 1974 no member of his department will be considered for promotion to any rank without having completed at least 2 years of college (64 credits). Beginning in 1973 all persons taking the civil service test for captain will be required to have 64 college credits. In addition, all police cadets in Nassau County are now required to attend college on a part-time basis and to complete 34 college credits before being appointed as a patrolman. Arrangements have been made with the Nassau Community College for their educational program at the expense of the police department. While there was some objection to Commissioner Looney's action from the Nassau County Patrolmen's Benevolent Association, the reaction in general has been favorable.

There are, however, compelling considerations which help to explain the relatively slow acceptance of the concept of mandatory college training for policemen. Members of minority groups, particularly blacks and Puerto Ricans, have generally not had equal educational opportunity, and, therefore, to require a college education for an appointment to the department might be discriminatory. The effort to increase representation of minority groups has therefore been an argument against a college education requirement. This is a real issue. Fortunately, in New York City, the City University has now adopted a policy of open admissions. This policy, which may be fully implemented by the fall of 1970, will provide a machinery whereby all high school graduates will be able to attend an appropriate unit of the City University. The SEEK program and the college discovery program of the City University will continue to provide special remedial assistance to high school graduates so that they may qualify for regular work in the community and senior colleges. With the policy adopted by the John Jay College that all persons who are members of the department and who, therefore, have completed the recruit school curriculum are automatically admissible as students, there is no longer any meaningful limitation upon college opportunity for members of the department.

Further arguments against mandatory college degree requirements reflect the practical consideration that the labor market has been extremely tight during the 1960's, making it difficult for police agencies to compete with industry for the available labor supply. Even the high school graduate requirement has in recent years held down the number of qualified applicants for appointment to the department. However, substantial improvements in salaries and working conditions and also the probability that economic conditions will not be as ebullient in the near term as in the recent past suggest that the department may find recruiting becoming less difficult. The argument may be made that higher educational requirements on entry will upgrade the "job image" and thus facilitate recruitment. However, the true professionalization of the patrolman's job which this would imply would appear to be a goal rather than a reality.

There is another consideration—does the rank-and-file patrolman really require a formal education beyond the secondary level? This issue has been debated vigorously by the research staff of this project. The staff has reached the conclusion that, at least for the next 5 to 10 years, college preparation is not required for all police officers. Most collegiate education is unrelated to police work, and properly so. There is some evidence that policemen performing routine patrol assignments become "disaffected" if they have advanced education. This is a consequence of the routine nature of much of the work of the typical patrolman and also the slowness of the promotion process within the department. As has been suggested in other sections of this chapter, for most patrolmen the appropriate immediate need is for substantial strengthening of the unit training program and the several specialized training programs. At the same time, the case for college education for police executives (and this term includes all superior officers) is inescapable. Given the small percentage of the department in the superior officer ranks, a collegiate educational requirement for them seems reasonable. It is clear that, with the opportunities provided through the City University of New York, there is no longer a substantial difficulty facing officers in meeting a collegiate educational requirement.

Therefore it is recommended that the following educational preparation be a requirement for promotion to higher rank:

Promotion to—	College requirement	Effective date
Captain and above	2 years (64 credits)	Jan. 1, 1975
Lieutenant and sergeant	2 do	Jan. 1, 1976
Captain and above	4 years (bachelor's degree)	Jan. 1, 1978
Lieutenant and sergeant	4 do	Jan. 1, 1979

The above timetable makes no demands on personnel of any rank who are content in their present rank, nor are demands made upon those who have had college preparation or are currently attending a college. It will provide a reasonable incentive to other members of the force who aspire to higher rank. In this way it will be possible to accomplish the President's Commission's recommendations with respect to a 4-year degree requirement without actually making it a requirement for police officers at the level of patrolman.

12.5 Continuing Evaluation of Performance in Relation to Training

As has been described in chapters 5 and 6, recruit training deficiencies will be discovered by means of escort officer evaluations as well as those of the recruits themselves. Academy instructors will evaluate recruit performance on a spot check basis. However, neither of these evaluations would apply to the seasoned patrolman, the subject of inservice training. Of the several possible means for inservice evaluation, two appear most feasible.

Academy instructors working in pairs and equipped with a car identified as a police academy vehicle with two-way radio communication can respond to citywide calls on a random basis. Upon arriving at the scene of a call, the instructors would assume no direct supervisory role but rather act as observers. They would utilize a checklist similar to that of the training escort officer to evaluate training needs as evidenced by the manner in which the responding patrolmen and superiors perform the task at hand. Their role, therefore, would be relatively passive unless an emergency need arose which required their participation. This might take the form of advice, direction, or actual physical assistance as the situation might warrant, but such action would be undertaken only in extreme cases. It is important to the success of the program that the training evaluators maintain an air of objectivity and that their reputation be free of any element of discipline or officiousness. Thus, the patrolmen involved would be free to perform their duties in the manner to which they have become accustomed without fear of sanction. Just as the recruits' performance evaluation is an evaluation of the task rather than the individual, so also is the evaluation of the seasoned patrolman's work. The shortcomings in his performance will provide a basis for valid inservice training content. Since the report will not identify individuals, no patrolman need fear adverse consequences from the academy appraisal.

A Continuing Public Opinion Report

The ultimate judge of the quality of police service as it is delivered is the public served by the department. Yet, the public is rarely invited to express an opinion of the adequacy of the police response to their needs. Rather, public opinion is usually served by providing some machinery for citizen grievances. Thus, the principal feedback a police department receives on the performance of its officers is of a negative nature. Many inequities experienced by citizens never reach the ears of the police hierarchy because of a reluctance to complain, either because of fear of possible reprisal or an unwillingness to create trouble for police officers and their families.

Frequently the citizen is well pleased with his police interaction. In these cases the department may not become aware of the effective service because the writing of a letter is something of a chore and, unless the service were outstanding, the civilian might not be strongly enough motivated to subject himself to the bother. Moreover, he might assume that good police service is no more than he deserves and would accept superior service as a matter of course. Earlier chapters of this report have cited selected studies which provide some information about both public and police expectations concerning the functions which should be performed by police officers. Civilian complaint statistics have indicated the kinds of police behavior most resented by the public. The education and training programs proposed in this report will seek to effect some amelioration of the tensions resulting from divergent police-public viewpoints. However, there are now no useful data available about those items of police performance that are considered relatively unsatisfactory or satisfactory. These must, therefore, be a matter of conjecture and their elimination or strengthening as the case may be in the training process is largely speculative.

It is a matter of considerable importance, therefore, that some reliable feedback less formal than an actual complaint and, by the same token, of lesser stature than a commendatory letter, be elicited from persons known to have had contact with the police. One method of obtaining the information sought would be to obtain a report from each person who enters a station house on official business or who otherwise becomes a subject of police service. Such a report would be prepared in the form of a simple checklist card in both English and Spanish mailed to the citizen as soon as possible after the incident and accompanied by a personal letter from the police commissioner, together with a self-addressed, stamped envelope for return of the report. The letter would explain that nothing in the response would be treated in the manner of a complaint, that the information would be used to improve training only, and that the cooperation of the person concerned would be of the utmost value in improving the service of the police. The checklist, itself, would deal with the manner in which the person was treated, the competency of the officer (s), the overall satisfaction the citizen derived, and the outcome of the incident. Thus, several basic aspects of training would be reflected by the instrument.

The employment of the citizen evaluation concept will require some adjustment in the traditional department approach to adverse criticism. Hitherto it has been the practice to investigate in detail each and every complaint and, wherever possible, to track down the offending employee. Following the establishment of his identity, charges would be leveled against him if the situation warranted such action and appropriate penalties would be meted out. Such a practice would defeat the rationale of the evaluation procedure. For one thing, it would be time consuming to identify each individual who was the subject of criticism, but, more important, it would raise the old specter of reluctance to make official complaint. Moreover, the cooperation of the rank and file, so essential to the success of the program, would be seriously curtailed. No useful purpose would be served by invoking disciplinary procedures in connection with the evaluation of training and the two processes should be kept rigidly separate. To do less would defeat the entire purpose of a continuing public opinion report system.

Appendix A—Comparative Study of Recruit Training At Other Police Agencies

INTRODUCTION

As a necessary preliminary to determining what an optimum police recruit training curriculum should include, the first research step taken in this project, during July 1968, was to determine what police agencies across the country were doing in recruit training. Letters were sent to all police agencies in the United States in cities with a population of 50,000 or more, to a 10-percent random sample of cities between 25,000 and 50,000 population, and to a 5-percent random sample of cities under 25,000. Of this total of 360 police agencies, 120 responded, but 60 of these replied negatively, with inadequate information or information not applicable to this study (some of this data, however, proved useful in other aspects of this project). The 60 agencies which supplied adequate training data for this study have been listed on a comparative table with a breakdown of their recruit training curriculums under nine major categories.

Subsequent to the receipt and tabulation of this data, it was found that not only would the information be useful as a basis for the development of a "model" recruit training curriculum, but it could also be useful to municipal police agencies as an evaluative source and guideline for the updating of current training and the creation of new police training programs.

MASTER COMPARATIVE TABULATION

The 60 police agencies are listed in alphabetical order on the following four-page tabulation. The first three columns indicate population, year of the current recruit training program, and the total number of personnel employed. Nine training categories were established after analysis of the data submitted by the various agencies. Some categories were relatively easy to establish, such as firearms, physical and first aid training, since almost all police agencies offer training in these specific areas. Further categorization was more difficult because of the lack of uniformity in training course titles and content. Similar subjects were grouped together; for example, training hours devoted to community relations, human behavior and other related topics were considered as one category. Subject matter which did not fit the categorization scheme was placed under the category "Miscellaneous police subjects." For each training category the number of hours devoted to that training and the percentage that these hours represent of the total recruit training program are indicated. The last two columns show the total training program in hours and weeks.

Police agency	Population [1]	Date of curriculum	Size of department [2]	Firearms training		Physical training		First aid training		Criminal law evidence investigation		Patrol and traffic training		Community relations and human behavior		Department orientation and policy procedure		Cooperation with other agencies		Miscellaneous		Total hours [3]	Number of weeks
				Hrs.	%	Hrs.	%	Hrs.	%	Hrs.	%	Hrs.	%	Hrs.	%	Hrs.	%	Hrs.	%	Hrs.	%		
Abilene, Tex.	103,000	1968	132	48	7	60	9	29	4	120	19	213	33	21	3	59	9	29	5	70	11	649	—
Alexandria, Va.	115,000	1968	189	52	9	58	10	13	2	140	24	130	23	38	6	84	14	32	7	29	5	576	—
Atlanta, Ga.	535,000	1968	950	14	8	11	6	6	3	65	33	42	23	6	4	30	17	7	5	2	1	183	5
Bakersfield, Cal. ..	66,000	1968	168	14	4	15	5	13	4	140	44	46	14	28	9	33	10	—	—	9	3	320	—
Bay City, Mich.	53,000	1968	89	12	10	7	6	4	3	18	15	33	27	13	11	10	8	2	2	—	—	120	2
Birmingham, Ala...	345,000	1968	556	50	13	61	15	34	8	42	10	86	22	36	9	46	12	17	4	27	7	399	—
Boston [4], Mass.	670,000	1968	2,672	20	1	80	5	32	2	144	9	1015	63	63	4	77	5	64	4	105	7	1,600	—
Buffalo, N. Y.	505,000	Mar. 1968	1,636	61	10	60	10	26	4	138	23	112	19	29	5	100	17	23	4	50	8	600	15
Chicago [5], Ill.	3,520,000	Dec. 1966	12,900	30	6	53	11	20	4	108	22	152	31	34	7	66	13	13	3	14	3	490	14
Cincinnati, Ohio ..	495,000	1968	1,039	40	7	48	9	27	5	108	20	158	28	16	3	117	21	38	7	—	—	552	14
Cleveland, Ohio	855,000	Oct. 1968	2,469	54	9	120	19	56	9	175	27	154	24	16	3	50	8	9	1	—	—	634	15
Columbus, Ohio ..	540,000	1968	918	55	9	136	22	47	7	134	21	108	17	35	6	67	11	17	3	29	4	628	—
Commonwealth of Massachusetts [6]	—	1968	—	24	15	16	10	18	11	52	33	23	14	8	5	12	8	7	4	—	—	160	—
Dallas, Tex.	790,000	Jan. 1968	1,666	64	12	10	2	20	4	169	32	144	28	53	10	32	6	18	4	10	2	520	—
Dayton, Ohio	260,000	June 1968	488	43	9	47	10	26	5	132	27	109	22	52	11	30	6	16	3	33	7	488	22
Detroit, Mich.	1,660,000	1968	4,828	50	11	47	10	22	5	129	29	62	14	29	6	73	16	34	8	4	1	450	12
Eugene, Ore.	70,000	1968	123	20	9	42	17	21	8	66	22	28	11	6	2	54	20	24	10	3	1	264	6
Fresno, Cal.	156,000	1968	307	18	9	20	10	10	5	66	33	50	25	12	6	14	7	10	5	—	—	200	—
Grand Rapids, Mich.	203,000	1968	293	28	5	42	9	30	6	62	13	243	49	6	1	71	14	14	3	—	—	496	—
Hilo [7], Hawaii	23,000	1968	172	7	3	66	25	19	7	64	24	60	23	4	2	31	12	9	3	2	1	262	7
Houston, Tex.	1,100,000	1968	1,875	46	7	65	10	30	5	122	20	150	24	30	5	103	16	38	6	48	7	632	16
Independence, Mo.	97,000	1968	116	16	6	27	9	29	11	65	25	61	23	6	4	51	9	24	10	—	—	264	7
Indianapolis, Ind...	530,000	1968	1,067	89	15	67	11	23	4	88	15	186	31	26	6	60	10	32	6	12	2	593	—
Kalamazoo, Mich.	86,000	1968	168	15	12	12	10	4	3	42	35	29	24	13	11	3	3	—	—	2	2	120	—
Kenosha, Wis.	76,000	1956	133	20	4	74	14	33	7	68	13	216	41	21	4	42	8	8	1	46	8	528	—
Lakewood, Ohio ..	71,000	1968	73	12	8	7	4	10	6	33	21	44	27	5	3	49	30	2	1	—	—	162	—
Las Vegas, Nev. ..	110,000	1968	310	32	11	47	15	12	4	88	27	54	15	18	6	50	15	24	7	—	—	325	7
Lexington, Ky.	79,000	—	216	32	4	116	16	20	3	106	15	194	27	34	5	111	15	76	11	31	4	720	18
Long Beach, Cal. ..	368,000	May 1968	648	32	7	62	14	10	2	110	25	106	24	30	7	33	8	4	1	13	3	440	—
Los Angeles, Cal. ..	2,695,000	1964	7,150	56	10	85	16	10	2	97	18	151	29	18	3	85	16	20	4	8	2	530	—
Louisville, Ky.	392,000	1968	685	70	14	66	14	21	5	91	20	92	20	28	6	56	12	38	8	3	1	465	—
Lower Merion, Pa.	67,000	1968	124	30	10	30	10	12	4	91	29	121	40	4	1	4	1	15	5	—	—	307	7
Miami, Fla.	325,000	1968	811	68	12	53	9	31	5	116	20	169	29	74	12	50	8	29	5	—	—	590	12
Minneapolis, Minn.	465,000	1968	771	27	6	31	7	22	5	90	20	80	17	110	24	71	16	20	5	4	1	455	11
New Haven, Conn.	151,000	1968	401	40	10	14	4	29	7	81	21	110	29	26	7	65	17	8	2	12	3	385	—
New Orleans, La.....	655,000	1968	1,559	58	13	31	7	14	3	89	19	163	36	20	4	34	7	23	5	27	6	458	14
New York City, N. Y.[8]	8,080,000	1967	30,135	56	10	176	32	16	3	92	16	88	15	56	10	66	12	10	2	—	—	560	16
New York State, Training Council [9]	—	1967	—	24	10	28	12	14	6	80	33	64	26	10	4	18	8	2	1	—	—	240	6
Norfolk, Va.	322,000	1968	518	26	11	40	16	15	6	54	22	51	21	10	4	25	10	22	9	2	1	245	7
Oakland, Cal.	378,000	Jan. 1968	852	31	6	71	13	13	2	153	28	162	31	42	8	53	10	5	1	3	1	533	—
Oregon State, Training School [10]	—	—	—	21	13	18	11	—	—	56	34	28	17	3	2	18	11	18	9	2	1	164	4
Pasadena, Cal.	124,000	1968	183	12	4	25	9	10	4	140	39	62	23	22	8	19	7	16	6	—	—	270	—
Pensacola, Fla.	61,000	—	108	26	13	14	7	10	5	76	38	56	28	10	5	6	3	2	1	—	—	200	—
Phoenix, Ariz.	520,000	1968	886	37	8	42	9	10	2	92	20	178	38	9	2	63	13	35	7	5	1	471	12

Police agency	Population [1]	Date of curriculum	Size of department [2]	Firearms training		Physical training		First aid training		Criminal law evidence investigation		Patrol and traffic training		Community relations and human behavior		Department orientation and policy procedure		Cooperation with other agencies		Miscellaneous		Total hours [3]	Number of weeks
				Hrs.	%	Hrs.	%	Hrs.	%	Hrs.	%	Hrs.	%	Hrs.	%	Hrs.	%	Hrs.	%	Hrs.	%		
Pontiac, Mich.	84,000	Feb. 1968	144	20	8	36	15	14	6	88	37	45	19	13	6	8	3	4	2	8	4	236	—
Providence, R.I.	195,000	—	499	50	12	46	12	37	9	27	7	62	15	8	2	113	28	34	9	23	6	400	—
Rochester, N.Y.	303,000	1965	637	70	12	94	16	14	2	67	12	136	23	19	3	93	16	39	7	53	9	585	—
Salem, Ore.	64,000	1968	119	26	8	14	5	26	8	84	27	60	19	21	7	61	20	20	6	—	—	312	—
San Diego, Cal.	636,000		799	40	6	26	4	30	4	70	10	444	65	13	2	47	7	12	2	—	—	682	—
Santa Clara, Cal.[11]	84,000	1968	99	12	5	28	12	10	4	93	39	58	24	18	8	7	3	13	5	—	—	239	—
Sioux City, Iowa	91,000	1968	125	12	6	5	3	28	14	40	19	64	31	5	2	40	19	13	6	—	—	207	—
South Bend, Ind.[12]	135,000	1968	218	35	12	30	11	13	4	74	25	97	33	16	4	18	6	8	2	9	3	300	8
St. Petersburg, Fla.	200,000	1968	348	63	14	39	9	16	4	54	12	117	27	18	5	78	18	41	9	6	2	432	11
St. Louis, Mo.	710,000	Dec. 1966	2,674	52	9	59	10	21	3	111	18	159	26	31	5	126	21	162	3	31	5	606	—
Tampa, Fla.	305,000	1968	678	43	12	17	5	12	3	109	30	90	25	24	6	46	13	6	2	13	4	360	—
Toledo, Ohio	354,000	1968	701	63	12	13	3	18	4	121	24	116	23	22	4	71	14	73	14	11	2	508	—
Washington, D.C.	810,000	1968	3,172	10	2	51	11	32	8	59	12	59	12	52	11	98	22	43	10	9	2	459	13
Wichita Falls, Tex.	116,000	1967	132	31	9	70	18	17	5	55	13	82	21	15	4	79	21	20	6	11	3	376	11
Whittier, Cal.	70,000	Sept. 1968	100	19	7	21	7	13	5	87	31	68	24	24	9	42	15	6	2	—	—	280	7
Winston-Salem, N. C.	139,000	1968	252	18	4	72	15	26	5	133	27	79	16	50	10	67	14	22	5	20	4	487	—

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[1] Population figures are "Estimated 1965 Population" from the Municipal Year Book, 1968.

[2] The size of each police agency includes both sworn members and civilians. The data was obtained from the Municipal Year Book, 1968 and relates to totals in early 1968.

[3] The total number of curriculum hours were not always supplied by each agency. In such instances, the training category hours were totaled to obtain these figures.

[4] The 1,600 total curriculum hours indicated for Boston include 1,015 hours spent in patrol and traffic training, most of which represent actual patrol under the observation of an instructor. This fact is responsible for the relatively low percentages in the remaining training categories.

[5] The training program shown for Chicago has since been replaced by a 31-week training program totaling 1,085 hours. The new recruit training program became effective early in 1969, too late for inclusion in this tabulation.

[6] The training council sets minimum standards that municipal police agencies in Massachusetts must follow. Several cities indicated that, although they had no training program of their own, they sent recruits to cities operating training programs approved by this State agency.

[7] This city was selected on the basis of the 5-percent sample of smaller cities indicated in the introduction and was the only city in this sample to respond with information useful for this particular study.

[8] The New York City Police Academy syllabus breaks down the training curriculum as follows: Academic, 312 hours; physical, 192 hours; and firearms, 56 hours, for a total of 560 hours. Effective May 1, 1969, however, 2 hours were added to the academic program, changing the total curriculum hours to 562. It should also be noted that of the 192 hours devoted to physical training, 16 hours are spent in first aid instruction. The breakdown is indicated on the table.

[9] This agency sets minimum training requirements for all municipal police departments in New York State with the exception of New York City. Several smaller cities stated that they had no recruit training program of their own, but depended on larger cities operating under standards established by the State training council.

[10] This State agency sets minimum standards which municipalities in Oregon must follow. Several smaller cities indicated they had no recruit training program of their own, but depended on jurisdictions approved by the State training agency to provide training.

[11] The information originally received for this study indicated 12 hours of firearms training. However, more recent information showed 16 hours of firearms training.

[12] This city will offer a recruit training program totaling 560 hours beginning in the fall of 1969.

OTHER TABULATIONS

Based on the information contained in the master comparative tabulation, a number of additional tabulations have been prepared to facilitate analysis, as well as to indicate to the police agencies that may use this data some of the possible ways in which they can compare their own agencies with those in the tabulation.

One of these is the training categories tabulation. There are nine tabulations, representing the nine categories which appear on the master comparative tabulation. Each training category lists 30 of the 60 police agencies, the 15 highest and the 15 lowest in each training category, based on the percentage of time the training category represents of the agency's total curriculum. Thus, for the 15 highs and the 15 lows there are columns indicating hours devoted to a training category and the percentage of time devoted to that training category. These columns are totaled and averaged to provide a basis for comparison between agencies devoting proportionately the highest and lowest number of hours to each category.

Another tabulation, called the composite training categories tabulation, was devised from data obtained from the master comparative tabulation and the training categories tabulation. Here the hour and percentage subdivisions appearing on the master comparative tabulation have been replaced with ranks in each training category, from 1 to 60. The positions that agencies hold on each of the nine training categories tabulations are shown by the numbers appearing on this tabulation. This not only enables the 60 police agencies to identify the training category tabulations on which they appear, to determine their relative position for each category of training, and to observe the frequency with which their agency appears on the training categories tabulations, but assists other police agencies in analyzing their own training programs by relating them to similar training programs appearing on the tabulation. Comparisons may be based on curriculum size, city size, agency size, geographical location and other factors.

A comparative tabulation for the 15 largest of the 60 cities in order of population was prepared from the master comparative tabulation. The training categories columns on the tabulation are totaled and averaged to provide consolidated information on the training programs of the larger cities, indicating the average number of hours devoted to each training category and the average percentage of the total curriculum. These averages indicate general trends in recruit training time allocation in large cities.

A high-low mean comparison tabulation compares the highest 15 cities to the lowest 15 cities in terms of the mean hours of training for each of the nine training categories. A function of this tabulation is to demonstrate the average range between the highs and lows in each training category as well as the range between the high and low overall curriculum. This may enable any police agency to "find itself" on the tabulation and make some estimate of the adequacy of its recruit training program, in relation to other police agencies.

TRAINING CATEGORIES TABULATIONS

The nine tabulations which follow represent the nine training categories which appear on the master comparative tabulation. Each tabulation lists 30 police agencies, the 15 highest and the 15 lowest in each category. The basis for ranking the agencies is the percentage each training category represents of the agency's total curriculum, although in cases where two or more agencies have the same percentage, the ordering is dependent on the number of hours in that category. For example, under "Firearms training," Indianapolis is ranked first in the "highest" column, since it spends proportionately more time in firearms training than any other agency surveyed (with the exception of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts). While Indianapolis and the Commonwealth of Massachusetts both show 15 percent on the "highest" side of the chart, Indianapolis appears first because it offers 89 hours as opposed to the 24 hours offered by the Commonwealth of Massachusetts. Conversely, agencies having the same percentage in the "lowest" column are ranked from the lowest number of category hours to the largest. Each column has been totaled and averaged to provide a basis for comparison between agencies devoting proportionately the highest and the lowest number of hours to each category.

Firearms training

HIGHEST				LOWEST			
Police agency	Percent	Hours	Total curriculum	Police agency	Percent	Hours	Total curriculum
Indianapolis, Ind.	15	89	593	Boston, Mass.	1	20	1,600
Commonwealth of Mass.	15	24	160	Washington, D.C.	2	10	459
Louisville, Ky.	14	70	432	Hilo, Hawaii	3	7	262
St. Petersburg, Fla.	14	63	465	Pasadena, Calif.	4	12	270
New Orleans, La.	13	58	458	Bakersfield, Calif.	4	14	320
Birmingham, Ala.	13	50	399	Winston-Salem, N.C.	4	18	487
Pensacola, Fla.	13	26	200	Kenosha, Wis.	4	20	528
Oregon State Training	13	21	164	Lexington, Ky.	4	32	720
Rochester, N.Y.	12	70	585	Santa Clara, Calif.	5	12	239
Miami, Fla.	12	68	590	Grand Rapids, Mich.	5	28	496
Dallas, Tex.	12	64	520	Sioux City, Iowa	6	12	207
Toledo, Ohio	12	63	508	Independence, Mo.	6	16	264
Providence, R.I.	12	50	400	Minneapolis, Minn.	6	27	455
Tampa, Fla.	12	43	300	Chicago, Ill.	6	30	490
South Bend, Ind.	12	35	360	Oakland, Calif.	6	31	533
Total		794	6,134	Total		289	7,330
Average	12.9	52.9	408.9	Average	3.9	19.2	488.6

Physical training

HIGHEST				LOWEST			
Police agency	Percent	Hours	Total curriculum	Police agency	Percent	Hours	Total curriculum
New York City	32	176	560	Dallas, Tex.	2	10	520
Hilo, Hawaii	25	66	262	Sioux City, Iowa	3	5	207
Columbus, Ohio	22	136	628	Toledo, Ohio	3	13	508
Cleveland, Ohio	19	120	634	Lakewood, Ohio	4	7	162
Wichita Falls, Tex.	18	70	376	New Haven, Conn.	4	14	385
Eugene, Oreg.	17	42	264	San Diego, Calif.	4	26	682
Lexington, Ky.	16	116	720	Salem, Oreg.	5	14	312
Rochester, N.Y.	16	94	585	Bakersfield, Calif.	5	15	320
Los Angeles, Calif.	16	85	530	Tampa, Fla.	5	17	360
Norfolk, Va.	16	40	245	Boston, Mass.	5	80	1,600
Winston-Salem, N.C.	15	72	487	Bay City, Mich.	6	7	120
Birmingham, Ala.	15	61	399	Atlanta, Ga.	6	11	183
Las Vegas, Nev.	15	47	325	Pensacola, Fla.	7	14	200
Pontiac, Mich.	15	36	236	Whittier, Calif.	7	21	280
Kenosha, Wis.	14	74	528	Minneapolis, Minn.	7	31	455
Total		1,235	6,779	Total		285	6,294
Average	18.2	82.3	451.9	Average	4.5	19.0	419.6

First aid training

HIGHEST				LOWEST			
Police agency	Percent	Hours	Total curriculum	Police agency	Percent	Hours	Total curriculum
Sioux City, Iowa	14	28	207	Oregon State Training	0	0	164
Independence, Mo.	11	27	264	Long Beach, Calif.	2	10	440
Commonwealth of Mass.	11	18	160	Los Angeles, Calif.	2	10	530
Cleveland, Ohio	9	56	634	Phoenix, Ariz.	2	10	471
Providence, R.I.	9	37	400	Alexandria, Va.	2	13	576
Birmingham, Ala.	8	34	399	Oakland, Calif.	2	13	533
Washington, D.C.	8	32	459	Rochester, N.Y.	2	14	585
Salem, Oreg.	8	26	312	Boston, Mass.	2	32	1,600
Eugene, Oreg.	8	21	264	Bay City, Mich.	3	4	120

First aid training—Continued

HIGHEST				LOWEST			
Police agency	Percent	Hours	Total curriculum	Police agency	Percent	Hours	Total curriculum
Columbus, Ohio	7	47	628	Kalamazoo, Mich.	3	4	120
Kenosha, Wis.	7	33	528	Atlanta, Ga.	3	6	183
New Haven, Conn.	7	29	385	Tampa, Fla.	3	12	360
Hilo, Hawaii	7	19	262	New Orleans, La.	3	14	458
Grand Rapids, Mich.	6	30	496	New York City	3	16	560
Norfolk, Va.	6	15	245	Lexington, Ky.	3	20	720
Total		452	5,643	Total		178	7,420
Average	8.0	30.1	376.2	Average	2.3	11.8	494.6

Criminal law evidence and investigation

HIGHEST				LOWEST			
Police agency	Percent	Hours	Total curriculum	Police agency	Percent	Hours	Total curriculum
Bakersfield, Calif.	44	140	320	Providence, R.I.	7	27	400
Pasadena, Calif.	39	104	270	Boston, Mass.	9	144	1,600
Santa Clara, Calif.	39	93	239	Birmingham, Ala.	10	42	399
Pensacola, Fla.	38	76	200	San Diego, Calif.	10	70	682
Pontiac, Mich.	37	88	236	St. Petersburg, Fla.	12	54	432
Kalamazoo, Mich.	35	42	120	Washington, D.C.	12	59	459
Oregon State Training	34	56	164	Rochester, N.Y.	12	67	585
New York State Training	33	80	240	Wichita Falls, Tex.	13	51	376
Fresno, Calif.	33	66	200	Grand Rapids, Mich.	13	62	496
Atlanta, Ga.	33	65	183	Kenosha, Wis.	13	68	528
Commonwealth of Mass.	33	52	160	Bay City, Mich.	15	18	120
Dallas, Tex.	32	169	520	Indianapolis, Ind.	15	88	593
Whittier, Calif.	31	87	280	Lexington, Ky.	15	106	720
Tampa, Fla.	30	109	360	New York City	16	92	560
Detroit, Mich.	29	129	450	Los Angeles, Calif.	18	97	530
Total		1,356	3,942	Total		1,045	8,480
Average	34.3	90.4	262.8	Average	12.3	69.6	565.3

Patrol and traffic training

HIGHEST				LOWEST			
Police agency	Percent	Hours	Total curriculum	Police agency	Percent	Hours	Total curriculum
San Diego, Calif.	65	444	680	Eugene, Oreg.	11	28	264
Boston, Mass.	63	1,015	1,600	Washington, D.C.	12	59	459
Grand Rapids, Mich.	49	243	496	Commonwealth of Mass.	14	23	160
Kenosha, Wis.	41	216	528	Bakersfield, Calif.	14	46	320
Lower Merion, Pa.	40	121	307	Detroit, Mich.	14	62	450
Phoenix, Ariz.	38	178	471	Las Vegas, Nev.	15	54	325
New Orleans, La.	36	163	458	Providence, R.I.	15	62	400
Abilene, Tex.	33	213	649	New York City	15	88	560
South Bend, Ind.	33	97	300	Winston-Salem, N.C.	16	79	487
Indianapolis, Ind.	31	186	490	Oregon State Training	17	28	164
Oakland, Calif.	31	162	533	Minneapolis, Minn.	17	80	455
Chicago, Ill.	31	152	490	Columbus, Ohio	17	108	628
Sioux City, Iowa	31	64	207	Pontiac, Mich.	19	45	236
Miami, Fla.	29	169	590	Salem, Oreg.	19	60	312
Los Angeles, Calif.	29	151	530	Buffalo, N.Y.	19	113	600
Total		3,574	8,329	Total		935	5,820
Average	42.9	238.2	555.2	Average	16	62.3	388.0

Community relations and human behavior

HIGHEST				LOWEST			
Police agency	Percent	Hours	Total curriculum	Police agency	Percent	Hours	Total curriculum
Minneapolis, Minn.	24	110	455	Lower Merion, Pa.	1	4	307
Miami, Fla.	12	74	590	Grand Rapids, Mich.	1	6	496
Dayton, Ohio	11	52	488	Oregon State Training	2	3	164
Washington, D.C.	11	52	459	Hilo, Hawaii	2	4	262
Bay City, Mich.	11	13	120	Sioux City, Iowa	2	5	207
Kalamazoo, Mich.	11	13	120	Eugene, Oreg.	2	6	264
New York City	10	56	560	Providence, R.I.	2	8	400
Dallas, Tex.	10	53	520	Phoenix, Ariz.	2	9	471
Winston-Salem, N.C.	10	50	487	San Diego, Calif.	2	13	682
Birmingham, Ala.	9	36	399	Lakewood, Ohio	3	5	162
Bakersfield, Calif.	9	28	320	Cincinnati, Ohio	3	16	552
Whittier, Calif.	9	24	280	Cleveland, Ohio	3	16	634
Oakland, Calif.	8	42	533	Los Angeles, Calif.	3	18	530
Pasadena, Calif.	8	22	270	Rochester, N.Y.	3	19	585
Santa Clara, Calif.	8	18	239	Abilene, Tex.	3	21	649
Total		643	5,890	Total		153	6,365
Average	10.9	42.8	389.3	Average	2.4	10.2	424.3

Department orientation policy and procedure

HIGHEST				LOWEST			
Police agency	Percent	Hours	Total curriculum	Police agency	Percent	Hours	Total curriculum
Lakewood, Ohio	30	49	162	Lower Merion, Pa.	1	4	307
Providence, R.I.	28	113	400	Kalamazoo, Mich.	3	3	120
Washington, D.C.	22	98	459	Pensacola, Fla.	3	6	200
St. Louis, Mo.	21	126	606	Santa Clara, Calif.	3	7	239
Cincinnati, Ohio	21	117	552	Pontiac, Mich.	3	8	236
Wichita Falls, Tex.	21	79	376	Boston, Mass.	5	77	1,600
Salem, Oreg.	20	61	312	South Bend, Ind.	6	18	300
Eugene, Oreg.	20	54	264	Dayton, Ohio	6	30	488
Sioux City, Iowa	19	40	207	Dallas, Tex.	6	32	520
St. Petersburg, Fla.	18	78	432	Fresno, Calif.	7	14	200
Buffalo, N.Y.	17	100	600	Pasadena, Calif.	7	19	270
New Haven, Conn.	17	65	385	New Orleans, La.	7	34	458
Atlanta, Ga.	17	30	183	San Diego, Calif.	7	47	682
Houston, Tex.	16	103	632	Bay City, Mich.	8	10	120
Rochester, N.Y.	16	93	585	Commonwealth of Mass.	8	12	160
Total		1,206	6,155	Total		321	5,900
Average	19.5	80.4	410.3	Average	5.4	21.4	393.3

Cooperation with other agencies

HIGHEST				LOWEST			
Police agency	Percent	Hours	Total curriculum	Police agency	Percent	Hours	Total curriculum
Toledo, Ohio	14	73	508	Bakersfield, Calif.	0	0	320
Lexington, Ky.	11	76	720	Kalamazoo, Mich.	0	0	120
Washington, D.C.	10	43	459	Lakewood, Ohio	1	2	162
Eugene, Oreg.	10	24	264	N.Y. State Training Council	1	2	240
Independence, Mo.	10	24	264	Pensacola, Fla.	1	2	200
St. Petersburg, Fla.	9	41	432	Long Beach, Calif.	1	4	440
Providence, R.I.	9	34	400	Oakland, Calif.	1	5	533
Norfolk, Va.	9	22	245	Kenosha, Wis.	1	8	528

Cooperation with other agencies—continued

HIGHEST

Police agency	Percent	Hours	Total curriculum
Oregon State Training	9	18	164
Louisville, Ky.	8	38	465
Detroit, Mich.	8	34	450
Rochester, N.Y.	7	39	585
Cincinnati, Ohio	7	38	552
Phoenix, Ariz.	7	35	471
Alexandria, Va.	7	32	576
Total		592	6,555
Average	9.0	39.4	437.0

LOWEST

Police agency	Percent	Hours	Total curriculum
Cleveland, Ohio	1	9	634
Bay City, Mich.	2	2	120
Pontiac, Mich.	2	4	236
Tampa, Fla.	2	6	360
Whittier, Calif.	2	6	280
New Haven, Conn.	2	8	385
South Bend, Ind.	2	8	300
Total		66	4,858
Average	1.3	4.4	323.8

Miscellaneous police subjects

HIGHEST

Police agency	Percent	Hours	Total curriculum
Abilene, Tex.	11	70	649
Rochester, N.Y.	9	53	585
Buffalo, N.Y.	8	50	600
Kenosha, Wis.	8	46	528
Boston, Mass.	7	105	1,600
Houston, Tex.	7	48	632
Dayton, Ohio	7	33	488
Birmingham, Ala.	7	27	399
New Orleans, La.	6	27	458
Providence, R.I.	6	23	400
St. Louis, Mo.	5	31	606
Alexandria, Va.	5	29	576
Lexington, Ky.	4	31	720
Columbus, Ohio	4	29	628
Winston-Salem, N.C.	4	20	487
Total		622	9,356
Average	6.6	41.4	623.7

LOWEST

Police agency	Percent	Hours	Total curriculum
Bay City, Mich.	0	0	120
Cincinnati, Ohio	0	0	552
Cleveland, Ohio	0	0	634
Commonwealth of Mass.	0	0	160
Fresno, Calif.	0	0	200
Grand Rapids, Mich.	0	0	496
Independence, Mo.	0	0	264
Lakewood, Ohio	0	0	162
Las Vegas, Nev.	0	0	325
Lower Merion, Pa.	0	0	307
Miami, Fla.	0	0	590
New York City	0	0	560
N.Y. State Training Council	0	0	240
Pasadena, Calif.	0	0	270
Pensacola, Fla.	0	0	200
Total		0	5,080
Average	0	0	338.6

NOTE: The 15 lowest cities in this category devote no time to the category. Therefore, they have been ranked alphabetically.

In the preceding nine training tabulations, percentages were used to rank police agencies on the basis of their recruit training curriculums. Percentages were used as the criteria for ranking rather than category hours because: (1) percentages are better indicators of the relative importance of each training category in the agency's total training program; (2) if training hours had been used rather than percentages, some of the larger cities would have been disproportionately represented, since more hours are usually available for training in larger jurisdictions.

In general, the training category tabulations provide police agencies of all sizes with representative data for recruit training program evaluation and development. The percentages provide an indication of the relative importance each category maintains in the total training perspective, and an index for comparison and analysis.

These nine tabulations indicate that:

1. There is no consensus on what percentage of the recruit training program should be devoted to training in each category. Size of city, ethnic composition, local problems, budget, and other factors have a bearing on curriculum content and time devoted to specific categories.

2. The cities not included on a particular training tabulation fall somewhere below the last agency listed in the "highest" column and the last agency listed in the "lowest" column. All 60 agencies are located between the 2 percentage extremes.

3. The averages may enable police agencies to evaluate their training programs and identify possible overbalancing in certain areas. Percentages

and average hours appreciably higher or lower than those appearing on the tabulations may warrant critical inspection and reevaluation.

4. In most cities a comparatively high percentage of the training program is spent on "patrol and traffic training" and "criminal law, evidence, and investigation." Even the agencies in the "lowest" columns devote a large segment of training to these two areas (a total of over 28 percent). In the "highest" columns, some 77 percent of the total curriculum is spent on instruction in these subjects.

5. In most cities a comparatively low percentage of the training program is spent in "first aid training," "community relations and human behavior," "cooperation with other agencies," and "miscellaneous subjects." Even in the "highest" columns, these four training categories account for only one-third of the total curriculum. In the "lowest" columns, these four categories total only 6 percent.

6. The percentage spans, that is, the differences between the highest and lowest percentage averages for each training category, are:

		Percent
(*a*)	Patrol and traffic training	26.9
(*b*)	Criminal law, evidence, and investigation	22.0
(*c*)	Cooperation with other agencies	7.7
(*d*)	Physical training	13.7
(*e*)	Firearms training	9.0
(*f*)	Departmental orientation, policy and and procedure	14.1
(*g*)	Community relations and human behavior	8.5
(*h*)	First aid	5.7
(*i*)	Miscellaneous	6.6

It would appear that there is a greater divergence of opinion on the amount of time which should be spent on "patrol and traffic" training and "criminal law, evidence, and investigation" training than on the amount of time which should be devoted to other subjects.

Patrol and Traffic Training

This tabulation represents a combination of two very basic functions—traffic control training and patrol training. The reason for combining these two training areas was that they usually involve some field or on-the-job training. The subject matter areas include patrol observation, patrol policy, patrol tactics, school crossings, communication techniques, accident investigation, dead-on-arrival cases, intersection control, parking and moving traffic citations, preparation of forms, report writing procedures, responding to radio calls, pursuit driving, vehicle code traffic laws, field training, and related topics.

Of particular interest in this tabulation is the 1,015 hours devoted to patrol and traffic training by the Boston Police Department. This unusually high figure represents some 800 hours of field training, or almost 5 months of full-time training.

There is a wide range in the average number of hours devoted to this area. The difference was the highest of all the high-low differences in all the tabulations. Ten of the largest cities in the United States are represented in this tabulation, with six in the highest category and four falling in the lowest category.

Criminal Law, Evidence, and Investigation

This tabulation quantifies that part of the police curriculum that involves legal subjects, both civil and criminal, including criminal and vice procedures. The topics included in this category are: laws of arrest, laws of search and seizure, review of criminal evidence, fraudulent checks, sex offenses, homicide, destruction of property, burglary, robbery, liquor laws, narcotics, auto theft, confidence games, curfew and truancy notices, interviewing techniques, statements, admissions and confessions, principles of investigation, collection and identification of evidence, and city ordinances.

An interesting point is that the lowest column has a higher average of total curriculum hours than the highest column. More surprising is the size of the difference—over 300 hours. This difference can be explained by the presence in the lowest column of six of the larger police departments and consequently six of the most extensive curriculums.

The cluster of California police departments on the highest side may be indicative of what some authorities have described as a "more professional" approach by these new, small, and essentially suburban police departments.

Cooperation With Other Agencies

This category includes that part of the curriculum which includes lessons on the cooperative roles of law enforcement agencies. Some of the titles of the lesson plans are: "Secret Service," "FBI," "State Police," "Coroner's Office," "Jailer's Duties," "Juvenile Court," "Criminal Court," "Immigration

Bureau," "District Attorney's Office," "Civil Defense Agencies," and the "Fire Department." There is a wide variation between the highest average hours column and the lowest column (39.4 hours to 4.4 hours) and this seems to be directly related to the average size of the curriculums, which are 437.0 hours and 323.8 hours respectively. Among the lowest are four departments in California, as well as New York City. While it was thought that the highest column would contain mostly smaller departments, which tend to be more dependent upon other law enforcement agencies to supplement their own resources, three of the largest cities are also included.

Physical Training

This particular category was easy to define, as it is usually a separate and distinct part of any police training curriculum. This area includes such topics as police baton training, handcuffing, mechanics of arrest, self-defense, crowd control, and riot control.

There are several points that are puzzling. Two large cities, New York City and Dallas, are at the opposite ends of the range. New York City devotes nearly one-third of its entire training curriculum to physical and drill exercises, while Dallas devotes less than 2 percent of its training program to physical and drill exercises. New York City is joined in the highest column by two other large cities, Cleveland and Los Angeles, while San Diego, Minneapolis, and Boston are, like Dallas, in the lowest column. What is interesting is that the average total hours of both the highest and lowest categories are about the same, indicating that the number of hours devoted to this subject is largely discretionary. If the reason is the availability of modern facilities (as was often found to be the case), then some serious questions are raised. Does the availability of modern facilities for physical training have any relation to the need for physical training?

Firearms Training

This tabulation represents another one of the easily definable areas of a police curriculum. It usually includes shotgun and small arms training, the handling of riot control equipment, and explosives.

The average total hours of the lowest column is higher by 80 hours than the same figure in the highest column. However, there is still a 33.7-hour difference in the average number of hours devoted to firearms training.

Departmental Orientation, Policy, and Procedures

This tabulation attempts to quantify the amount of time devoted to "socializing" the recruit into the police organization. The subject matter includes internal organization, pension plans, insurance orientation, blood bank, discipline, rules and regulations, care of departmental vehicles, civil service, intra-agency squads, testing, review, study hours, ethics, graduation, police benevolent societies, history of police functions, and the chaplain's speech. This is another area where there is a considerable range reflected in the 80.4 average total hours given to it by the highest departments and the 21.4 hours devoted to it by the lowest departments. The nature of these topics is such that the subject matter might in many cases be learned by on-the-job training.

The presence of one of the State training councils and four California departments is observed in the lowest column. The State training council's emphasis on general material and the strength of the California departments in other categories lead one to surmise that this material, however important, can be assimilated in ways other than during recruit training.

Community Relations and Human Behavior

This category isolates the subject matter which deals in whole or in part with such subjects as family disturbances, the handling of abnormal persons, human relations, mental illness, suicide, alcoholism, drug use, sexual deviation, race and ethnic group relations, public relations, public speaking, the nature of early adolescence, social psychology, and delinquent behavior.

The average total number of hours in the curriculums of the highest and lowest columns are similar at 389.3 and 424.3. However, the average total number of hours devoted to this subject varied from 42.8 hours to 10.2 hours. This may indicate another large discretionary component in the recruit curriculum. There is no standard number of hours or set type of courses included in this category as compared to other areas which may be somewhat better defined. It is interesting to note that of the nine categories this is the only one that has an education component as distinguished from training, which is essentially vocational, dealing with skills or the "how to."

First Aid Training

This tabulation quantifies the number of hours devoted to such subjects as the transportation of sick and injured, control of bleeding, shock and wound treatment, artificial respiration, heat cases, poison cases, submersion cases, emergency childbirth, administration of oxygen, rabies, fallout, and medical self-help.

There are two interesting points in this tabulation. Six of the largest cities are in the lowest column which averaged 11.8 hours and the difference between the highest and lowest columns is the smallest of all the other differences. This indicates a high degree of agreement as to the importance of this subject.

Miscellaneous

This tabulation represents those topics which could not be placed adequately in any of the other categories. A list of these subjects shows the reason. They include hospital etiquette, animal cruelty, techniques of memory and observation, communism, John Birch Society, tornado and four weather reporting, industrial safety, extradition of fugitives, snow removal, weights and measures, the handling of high tension wires, foot health and care, typing, and so on.

The predominance of small or medium sized departments in the lowest column is understandable. However, the presence of five large cities in the highest column in puzzling. It may be that the number of hours in this category is related to the size of the total curriculum, as illustrated by the 285-hour difference in curriculum totals.

The following tabulation compares the highest 15 cities to the lowest 15 cities in terms of the mean hours of training for each of the nine training categories. The average number of hours of training for each category has been taken from the training categories tabulations, high and low. The total of these averages for the nine categories indicates a maximum currriculum of 697.9 hours and a minimum of 217.9 hours. A purpose of this tabulation is to demonstrate the average ranges between the highs and lows in each training category, as well as the range between the high and low overall curriculum.

High-low mean comparison

	High		Low	
Training category	Mean hours	Percentage	Mean hours	Percentage
Firearms training	52.9	7.6	19.2	8.81
Physical training	82.3	11.8	19.2	8.71
First aid training	30.1	4.3	11.8	5.41
Criminal law, evidence, investigation	90.4	13.1	69.6	31.94
Patrol and traffic training	238.2	34.1	62.3	28.59
Community relations and human behavior	42.8	6.1	10.2	4.68
Department orientation, policy and procedure	80.4	11.5	21.4	9.82
Cooperation with other agencies	39.4	5.6	4.4	2.01
Miscellaneous police subjects	41.4	5.9	0	0
Total curriculum	697.9	100	217.9	100

In comparing the mean hours devoted to each of the nine training categories by the 15 highest and the 15 lowest agencies, some interesting conclusions can be drawn. With few exceptions the percentage of total training time devoted to each of the nine categories by the 15 highest and 15 lowest agencies is similar, although the number of hours on the high side is substantially greater. For example, the highest agencies devote an average of 80 hours to departmental orientation, policy, and procedure, while the lowest agencies devote an average of only 21 hours to the subject. However, while the highest agencies average 11.5 percent of total time on this subject, the lowest agencies devote 9.32 percent of their time to the subject. Again, in the area of patrol and traffic, the highest agencies devote 238.2 hours, as compared to 62.3 hours for the lowest. However, the highest agencies devote 34.1 percent of their time to the subject, while the lowest agencies devote 28.5 of their time to patrol and traffic. A high degree of congruence in percentage of time devoted to subject matter is indicated by this tabulation. One exception to this conclusion is obvious. Criminal law, evidence, and investigation illustrates the only significant case where the lowest exceeds the highest in percentage of total time devoted to one of the nine training categories.

It is tempting to regard the 697.9 hour curriculum as an ideal or model, representing, as it does, the average of the highest for each training category. This may not be valid, however, having been derived from what now exists in a number of police agencies. None of these curriculums may have been based on anything more than tradition, trial and error or other uncritical criteria. It would be more valid to regard the percentages as being reasonably close to ideal, although we are not willing even to state that as a conclusion.

On the other hand, it is difficult to see how any curriculum under the minimum 217.9 hours could be adequate for present police needs. Two of the three State training councils represented in this study and a majority of others still have curriculums below this level.

The following tabulation, on page 185, includes the 15 largest of the 57 cities listed in the master comparative tabulation, in order of population. The training categories columns in the tabulation have been totaled and averaged to provide information on the training programs of the larger cities, giving the average number of hours devoted to each training category and the average percentage of the total curriculum.

This tabulation is intended as an evaluative and comparative source for the larger cities in the Nation. The averages which appear at the bottom of the tabulation indicate general trends in recruit training time allocation in these larger cities. No attempt is made to evaluate these data; rather, the data are presented only as indicators of existent programs and program priorities. The averages do not necessarily indicate an "ideal" program.

The averages show that two categories, patrol and traffic training and criminal law, evidence, and investigation, account for more than half of the training curriculum (52 percent). These two categories, along with department orientation, policy and procedure, and physical training, constitute three-quarters of the recruit training curriculums of the 15 major police departments.

The next tabulation, on pages 186 and 187, is a composite of data obtained from the training categories and master comparative tabulation. Its format is similar to the latter, with the 60 police agencies listed in alphabetical order. The hour and percentage subdivisions appearing on the master comparative tabulation have been replaced with ranks in each category, from one to 60. Hhe tabulation identifies the highest (number 1) and the lowest (number 60) ranking agencies in each training category by percentage. These rankings correspond to the highest and lowest columns on the various training category tabulations. The positions that agencies hold in each of the nine training categories tabulations are indicated by the numbers appearing in this tabulation. For example, Abilene, Tex., ranks eighth highest of the 60 agencies in the percentage of its curriculum devoted to patrol and traffic training. Boston ranks 60th, or lowest of all agencies, in the percentage of its curriculum devoted to firearms training.

As previously noted, the composite tabulation is derived from data which appear in previous tabulations. The main purposes of this tabulation are to enable the 60 police agencies to identify the training tabulations in which they appear, to determine their relative position in each tabulation, and to observe the frequency with which their agency appears in the training categories tabulations. The relative position of each agency and the frequency with which each agency appears are not necessarily significant, but may nonetheless be useful.

Another important use of this tabulation is that it will assist other police agencies in analyzing their own training programs by relating them to similar training programs. Comparisons can be based on length of curriculum, city size, agency size, geographical location, and other factors.

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Police agency	Population	Date of curriculum	Size of department	Firearms training		Physical training		First aid training		Criminal law evidence investigation		Patrol and traffic training		Community relations and human behavior		Department orientation and policy procedure		Cooperation with other agencies		Miscel-laneous		Total hours	Number of weeks
				Hrs.	%	Hrs.	%	Hrs.	%	Hrs.	%	Hrs.	%	Hrs.	%	Hrs.	%	Hrs.	%	Hrs.	%		
New York City, N. Y.	8,080,000	1967	30,135	56	10	176	32	16	3	92	16	88	15	56	10	66	12	10	2	—	—	560	16
Chicago, Ill.	3,520,000	Dec. 1966	12,900	30	6	53	11	20	4	108	22	152	31	34	7	66	13	13	3	14	3	490	14
Los Angeles, Cal.	2,695,000	1964	7,150	56	10	85	16	10	2	97	18	151	29	18	3	85	16	20	4	8	2	530	—
Detroit, Mich.	1,660,000	1968	4,828	50	11	47	10	22	5	129	29	62	14	29	6	73	16	34	8	4	1	450	12
Houston, Tex.	1,100,000	1968	1,875	46	7	65	10	30	5	122	20	150	24	30	5	103	16	38	6	48	7	632	16
Cleveland, Ohio	855,000	Oct. 1968	2,469	54	9	120	19	56	9	175	27	154	24	16	3	50	8	9	1	—	—	634	15
Washington, D.C.	810,000	1968	3,172	10	2	51	11	32	8	59	12	59	12	52	11	98	22	43	10	9	2	459	13
Dallas, Tex.	790,000	Jan. 1968	1,666	64	12	10	2	20	4	169	32	144	28	53	10	32	6	18	4	10	2	520	—
St. Louis, Mo.	710,000	Dec. 1966	2,674	52	9	59	10	21	3	111	18	159	26	31	5	126	21	162	3	31	5	606	—
Boston, Mass.	670,000	1968	2,672	20	1	80	5	32	2	144	9	1015	63	63	4	77	5	64	4	105	7	1600	—
New Orleans, La.	655,000	1968	1,559	58	13	31	7	14	3	89	19	163	36	20	4	34	7	23	5	27	6	458	14
San Diego, Cal.	636,000	—	799	40	6	26	4	30	4	70	10	444	65	13	2	47	7	12	2	—	—	682	—
Colubus, Ohio	540,000	1968	918	55	9	136	22	47	7	134	21	108	17	35	6	67	11	17	3	29	4	628	—
Atlanta, Ga.	535,000	1968	950	14	8	11	6	6	3	65	33	42	23	6	4	30	17	7	5	2	1	183	5
Indianapolis, Ind.	530,000	1968	1,067	89	15	67	11	23	4	88	15	186	31	36	6	60	10	32	6	12	2	593	—
Total				694		1,017		379		1,625		3,077		492		1,014		502		299		9,025	—
Average				46.2	7.6	67.8	11.2	25.2	4.2	110.1	18.3	205.1	34	328	5.4	67.6	11.2	33.4	5.6	19.9	3.3	601.6	—

	Population	Date of curriculum	Size of department	Firearms training	Physical training	First aid training	Criminal law evidence investigation	Patrol and traffic training	Community relations and human behavior	Department orientation and policy procedure	Cooperation with other agencies	Miscel- laneous	Total hours	Number of weeks
				rank	rank	rank	rank	rank	rank	rank	rank	rank		
Albilene, Tex.	103,000	1968	132	40	37	32	42	8	46	39	23	1	—	—
Alexandria, Va.	115,000	1968	189	29	30	56	26	35	20	22	15	12	576	—
Atlanta, Ga.	535,000	1968	950	38	49	50	10	40	45	13	31	40	183	5
Bakersfield, Cal.	66,000	1968	168	56	53	40	1	57	11	37	60	22	320	—
Bay City, Mich.	53,000	1968	89	26	50	52	50	23	5	47	51	60	120	2
Birmingham, Ala.	345,000	1968	556	6	12	6	58	42	10	31	36	8	399	—
Boston, Mass.	670,000	1968	2,672	60	51	53	59	2	36	55	32	5	1,600	—
Buffalo, N. Y.	505,000	Mar. 1968	1,636	20	28	33	29	46	32	11	33	3	600	15
Chicago, Ill.	3,520,000	Dec. 1966	12,900	47	23	36	30	12	16	26	42	18	490	14
Cincinatti, Ohio	495,000	1968	1,039	42	39	21	38	17	50	5	13	59	552	14
Cleveland, Ohio	855,000	Oct. 1968	2,469	28	4	4	18	28	49	41	52	58	634	15
Columbus, Ohio	540,000	1968	918	27	3	10	33	49	22	33	39	14	628	—
Commonwealth of Massachusetts	—	1968	—	2	35	3	11	58	35	46	37	57	160	—
Dallas, Tex.	790,000	Jan. 1968	1,666	11	60	35	12	18	8	52	35	26	520	—
Dayton, Ohio	260,000	June 1968	488	31	32	22	20	41	3	53	40	7	488	22
Detroit, Mich.	1,660,000	1968	4,828	17	31	24	15	56	23	17	11	33	450	12
Eugene, Oregon	70,000	1968	123	33	6	9	31	60	55	8	4	36	264	6
Fresno, Cal.	156,000	1968	307	34	36	29	9	27	28	51	30	56	200	—
Grand Rapids, Mich.	203,000	1968	293	51	41	14	52	3	59	24	41	55	496	—
Hilo, Hawaii	23,000	1968	172	58	2	13	28	39	57	32	43	39	262	7
Houston, Texas	1,100,000	1968	1,875	41	27	20	36	29	31	14	17	6	632	16
Independence, Mo.	97,000	1968	116	49	43	2	25	38	44	40	5	54	264	7
Indianapolis, Ind.	530,000	1968	1,067	1	22	34	49	10	21	35	18	24	593	—
Kalamazoo, Mich.	86,000	1968	168	16	34	51	6	33	6	59	59	30	120	—
Kenosha, Wis.	76,000	1956	133	54	15	11	51	4	38	43	53	4	528	—
Lakewood, Ohio	71,000	1968	73	39	57	18	35	22	51	1	58	53	162	—
Las Vegas, Nev.	110,000	1968	310	18	13	42	21	55	26	20	16	52	325	7
Lexington, Ky.	79,000	—	216	53	7	46	48	20	29	19	2	13	720	18
Long Beach, Cal.	368,000	May 1968	648	43	17	59	23	30	17	44	55	19	440	—
Los Angeles, Cal.	2,695,000	1964	7,150	21	9	58	46	15	48	16	34	28	530	—
Louisville, Ky.	392,000	1968	685	3	16	26	40	45	24	30	10	34	465	—
Lower Merion, Pa.	67,000	1968	124	24	33	41	16	5	60	60	28	51	307	7
Miami, Fla.	325,000	1968	811	10	38	19	37	14	2	42	24	50	590	12
Minneapolis, Minn.	465,000	1968	771	48	46	52	41	50	1	18	27	32	455	11
New Haven, Conn.	151,000	1968	401	23	56	12	34	16	18	12	47	20	385	—
New Orleans, La.	655,000	1968	1,559	5	45	48	43	7	39	49	25	9	458	14
New York City, N.Y.	8,080,000	1967	30,135	22	1	47	47	53	7	29	45	49	560	16
New York State Training Council	—	1967	—	25	20	16	8	25	43	45	57	48	240	6
Norfolk, Va.	322,000	1968	518	19	10	15	32	44	42	38	8	38	245	7
Oakland, Cal.	378,000	Jan. 1968	852	46	18	55	17	11	13	36	54	35	533	—
Oregon State Training	—	—	—	8	26	60	7	51	58	34	9	37	164	4
Pasadena, Cal.	124,000	1968	183	57	[illegible]	44	2	37	14	50	21	47	270	—
Pensacola, Fla.	61,000	—	108	7	[illegible]	30	4	19	34	58	56	46	200	—
Phoenix, Ariz.	520,000	—	—	35	[illegible]	57	39	6	53	27	14	31	471	12
Pontiac, Mich.	84,000	Feb. 1968	144	37	14	17	5	48	27	56	50	17	236	—
Providence, R. I.	195,000	—	499	13	19	5	60	54	54	2	7	10	400	—

	Population	Date of curriculum	Size of department	Firearms training	Physical training	First aid training	Criminal law evidence investigation	Patrol and traffic training	Community relations and human behavior	Department orientation and policy procedure	Cooperation with other agencies	Miscellaneous	Total hours	Number of weeks
				rank	rank	rank	rank	rank	rank	rank	rank	rank		
Rochester, N. Y.	303,000	1965	637	9	8	54	54	34	47	15	12	2	585	—
St. Louis, Mo.	710,000	Dec. 1966	2,674	30	29	45	45	24	30	4	38	11	606	—
St. Petersberg, Fla	200,000	1968	348	4	42	38	56	21	33	10	6	29	432	11
Salem, Ore.	64,000	1968	119	36	54	8	22	47	19	7	19	45	312	—
San Diego, Cal.	636,000	—	799	45	55	31	57	1	52	48	44	44	682	—
Santa Clara, Cal.	84,000	1968	99	52	21	43	3	32	15	57	29	43	239	—
Sioux City, Iowa	91,000	1968	125	50	59	1	44	13	56	9	22	42	207	—
South Bend, Ind.	135,000	1968	218	15	25	39	24	9	40	54	46	23	300	8
Tampa, Fla.	305,000	1968	678	14	52	49	14	26	25	28	49	16	360	—
Toledo, Ohio	354,000	1968	701	12	58	37	27	36	37	23	1	25	580	—
Washington, D.C.	810,000	1968	3,172	59	24	7	55	59	4	3	3	27	459	13
Whittier, Cal.	70,000	Sept. 1968	100	44	47	28	13	31	12	21	48	41	280	7
Wichita Falls, Tex.	116,000	1967	132	32	5	27	53	43	41	6	20	21	376	11
Winston-Salem, N. C.	139,000	1968	252	55	11	23	19	52	9	25	26	15	487	—

NOTE:—In several cases 2 or more departments show equal subject-matter hours as well as equal percentages. In these cases ranking has been alphabetical.

Letter Sent to 360 Police Agencies

The City of New York
1664
POLICE DEPARTMENT
NEW YORK, N. Y. 10013

O.L.E.A. PROJECT #339
Police Training &
Performance Study

Under a grant from the Office of Law Enforcement Assistance of the United States Department of Justice, the New York City Police Department is conducting a study in depth of its training procedures. The purpose of this project is to develop a model training program for staff at all levels, to evaluate the merits of assigning responsibility to a civilian Director of Training and using a larger proportion of civilians on the faculty of the Police Academy, and to create a system for evaluating the effectiveness of the training by measuring the actual on-the-job performance as a function of training.

It is our expectation that the results of the research in New York will be of value not only within the New York City Police Department but also in other agencies and the final report, manual, and curriculum will be made available to interested police departments.

In connection with the work of this project copies of curricula, training materials, reading lists, syllabi and the like, used by your department would be most helpful. We would like to benefit by your experience in the crucial area of personnel training so that the most effective use may be made of the grant resources.

The research project will direct major attention to the relationships between our present and proposed program and the actual duties and functions of police officers in the field. Here your experience will be most helpful. Any studies which you may have made on the proportion of man hours devoted to the various police tasks would be very useful.

Sincerely yours,

George P. McManus
Assistant Chief Inspector
Chief of Personnel
Project Director

MB/w

Appendix B—Comparative Study of Firearms Training

After completing a survey of police firearms training programs in the New York City Police Department, port authority police, and transit authority police, the staff felt that it would be useful to know what other police agencies were doing in firearms training. Only then could a determination be made as to what constitutes a model firearms training program for police.

Information on firearms training was received from some 45 agencies as a result of a "general" training information request. However, as more specific data was needed, a survey questionnaire was designed and forwarded to 72 police officer graduates of the 81st session of the FBI National Academy. Forty-eight responded, some from very small cities. Finally, several law enforcement agencies were visited (Nassau and Suffolk Counties in New York, New York State Police, FBI, Puerto Rico Police, and Chicago Police Department).

For ease of reference, the data is presented in a comparative tabulation on pages 192–201. Listed are police agencies of 84 U.S. municipal jurisdictions, seven States and four counties, two Federal agencies, one highway patrol, the Puerto Rico Police, the Montreal (Canada) Police, the New York Port Authority Police, and the New York Transit Authority Police. While the information may be of interest to training officers and administrators, caution should be exercised in comparing one agency with another. Some pertinent facts revealed by the survey are:

(*a*) Twenty-seven agencies issue firearms to new recruits immediately on appointment, 15 during recruit training (usually after qualifying) and 13 after completion of training or graduation. It is considered a poor and dangerous practice by most range officers and police executives contacted in this survey to arm untrained men.

(*b*) The .38 caliber special is the most common sidearm used. Several agencies use the .357 magnum and one uses a .41 caliber. Barrel lengths vary with location (city versus country) and type of police work (plainclothes versus uniformed).

(*c*) Thirty-eight agencies issue the weapon to new officers; 17 require new officers to purchase their weapons.

(*d*) There is great variety in the number of hours of firearms training given to new recruits. The highest is in Indianapolis, Ind., with 89 hours. The FBI requires 88. One department has no firearms training, one has only 4 hours. The most common is 40 hours, the average of all agencies is 36.3 hours.

(*e*) Where the information was available, the percentage of the entire recruit training program that an agency devotes to firearms training was computed. The percentages vary widely from 1.3 to 33 percent. The most common is 8 percent, the average of all agencies is 9.2 percent.

(*f*) The great differences in amount of firearms training appear to depend on budget, facilities and size of agency. Many respondents indicated a need for more training and for standardization.

(*g*) Almost every agency that offers firearms training offers both single and double action training, but the majority concentrate on the latter. There is no standardization of courses fired or targets used.

(*h*) Many departments indoctrinate new recruits in the use of heavy weapons (shotgun, rifle, machinegun, gas gun), but this policy seems to depend on budget, facilities, location and size of department.

(*i*) Night firing is relatively common, but such special devices as bobber targets, running man and multiple targets, electric targets, turning targets, combat villages, exertion courses, and the like are few.

(*j*) Thirty-one agencies provide firearms training all at once on consecutive days, 28 spread the training out over a period of time. (Range officers generally agree that firearms training provided all at once is more intensive, reinforces good habits, and provides less opportunity for the trainee to forget principles.)

(*k*) With regard to the firearms tests given and qualification scores required of new recruits, there is great variety and no standardization. Not only are the percentages or scores different, but different targets are used (Colt, bobber, Prehle, bull's-eye, a variety of silhouette and combat targets, and special targets). In addition, many agencies have modified courses; when they refer to the PPC (Practical Pistol Course) they are referring to their own version of the PPC. Some standardization appears desirable.

(*l*) A variety of bases for the various qualifying scores were offered (statute, policy, precedent, NRA). An excellent policy would seem to be that of the U.S. Park Police—"It is felt that a score below 75 tends to show good evidence that an officer lacks reasonable effectiveness in marksmanship and safety for bystanders." A statute offers the best protection in civil cases. Precedent and NRA are weak bases.

(*m*) Many agencies have no recruits who fail to qualify. Most, however, provide additional training and extra help for those who fail the shooting tests. A few dismiss nonqualifiers. It is desirable to salvage a trainee wherever possible with some additional work, but this should not be carried too far. A third failure should result in dismissal in the interest of all concerned.

(*n*) Firearms training for experienced officers varies from once a week (Wausau, Wis., and Western Springs, Ill.) to none. Inservice training is provided by the following number of agencies:

Weekly—2
Monthly—7
Eight times a year—1
Each 2 months—1
Each 3 months—4
Each 4 months—10
Each 6 months—8
Yearly—14
Each 18 months—1
Voluntary—4
None—1

The frequency appears to depend on budget, facilities, and size of department. There is no standardization in the courses fired or in the qualifying scores required (some agencies have shooting practice but no qualification).

(*o*) Several agencies have an incentive system of awards for shooting proficiency (Fairfield, California; Midland, Texas; Los Angeles, California; Sacramento, California; Cleveland, Ohio; New York Port Authority; New York City Transit Authority). They claim that motivation and shooting proficiency are thereby increased, which is a benefit to the men, the department and the public.

(*p*) The most common comments were that more firearms training is needed (recruit and inservice), minimum qualification scores should be raised and standardization encouraged.

FIREARMS SURVEY SENT TO 72 LAW ENFORCEMENT OFFICERS

Can you provide the answers to the following questions:

1. At what point is the new recruit in your department armed with a firearm (i.e., immediately on appointment, after a certain period of time, after completing certain phases of training, after completing basic training, etc.)?

2. What kind of firearms is he armed with?

3. Is it issued by your department or does he purchase it with his own funds?

4. What is the nature of firearms training for new recruits in your police department (i.e., with what weapons, type of course, number of hours on the range, number of hours in the classroom, special devices or techniques used in training, etc.)?

5. Is the firearms training given all at once or spread out over time?

6. What kind of test is given to measure firearms proficiency? What is the qualifying or acceptable score? What is the basis for setting the passing score at that level?

7. Do any new recruits fail to qualify for reasons of inability to shoot the passing score?

8. What is the nature of firearms training for experienced police officers in your department (i.e., with what weapons, type of course, number of times each year, number of hours on the range, number of hours in the classroom, etc.)?

9. Do any experienced police officers fail to shoot acceptable scores from time to time? What is done with these men?

10. Do you have any other opinions, comments or observations with regard to firearms training policies?

Notes Relating to Column Numbers in Comparative Tabulations, Pages 192 to 201

Column 1.—The 102 police agencies listed are those which responded to the survey questionnaires with adequate information and those agencies which were personally visited by research staff members. Two surveys were made: one general police training survey of 360 American police agencies to which approximately 120 responded (of which about 45 included useful firearms training data) and a firearms survey of 72 American police agencies and Montreal, Canada, to which approximately 48 responded (three too late for inclusion in the tabulation). The cities range in size from Elko, Nev. (population 6,298 in 1960), to New York City (population 7,781,984 in 1960). Included also are county police agencies, State police agencies, a State highway patrol, and Federal law enforcement agencies.

Column 2.—Population figures are from the 1960 census of population. Although more up-to-date population figures are available for many cities, it was felt that for consistency the 1960 census data should be used.

Column 3.—This column indicates at what point in the training period the new recruit takes posssession of his firearm: on the day of appointment, at some time during training, after completion of certain aspects of the training course, after completion of all training, or after graduation.

Column 4.—All handguns referred to are either Smith & Wesson or Colt revolvers.

Column 5.—The handgun is either issued to the new police recruit or he must purchase it himself.

Columns *6–7.*—These columns contain a number and a percentage. The number is the approximate number of hours devoted to firearms training, both in the classroom and on the pistol range. The percentage is that part of the entire recruit training curriculum which represents firearms training.

(NOTE: Many police agencies include field assignments as part of their curriculum. In these cases the percentage of the curriculum which is firearms training is deceptively low. For example, Boston has a 1,600-hour curriculum of which firearms training is only 1.3 percent. But 920 of those hours are field assignments, on-the-job training as opposed to classroom training, without which the figure would be almost 3 percent.)

Column 8.—Abbreviations used for type of course are BE for bull's-eye target, PPC for practical pistol course, DA for double action and SA for single action courses.

Column 9.—Weapons other than the handgun in which some training is given to new recruits are indicated (i.e., shotgun, rifle, carbine, machinegun, gas gun).

Column 10.—Special devices and techniques used in the firearms training program for recruits are indicated (i.e., night shooting, exertion course, bobber targets, deactivated guns, chemical devices, turning targets, films, slides, cutaway models).

Column 11.—Training policy usually requires all firearms training to be given at one time (that is, completed on consecutive days) or spread out over a period of weeks or months.

Column 12.—This column answers the questions: Is a firearms test given to recruits? What kinds of tests? What is the minimum score required before a recruit is considered qualified in the use of his weapon?

Column 13.—The philosophy or basis for the test and minimum qualifying score are indicated (i.e., statute, experience, policy, NRA, past precedent).

Column 14.—This column answers the questions: Do some recruits fail to attain the minimum acceptable qualifying mark on the firearms test? If so, what is your policy with respect to these men?

(Note: Columns 3 through 14 apply to recruit firearms training. Columns 15 and 16 apply to inservice firearms training.)

Column 15.—This column answers the questions: How often are experienced police officers retrained or required to shoot? What kind of inservice firearms training is provided?

Column 16.—This column answers the questions: Do some experienced police officers fail to attain the minimum acceptable qualifying score on the firearms test at retraining or practice sessions? If so, what is your policy concerning these men?

Column 17.—Opinions, comments and observations of reporting agencies where offered and appropriate, are indicated.

Blank spaces in the tabulation indicate information is not available. The accuracy of the information presented in the tabulation cannot be assured, as the sources were varied and the information was provided in many forms, often requiring interpretation.

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
							RECRUIT FIREARMS		
Police agency	Population	When armed? Before, during or after basic training	Weapon used	Is weapon issued or purchased	Number of hours	Percent of total hours	Type of course	Training in other weapons	Special devices and techniques
Abilene, Tex.	90,368				48	7			Night firing
Alexandria, Va.	115,000				52	9	BE–PPC SA–DA	Gas gun, Semiautomatic weapons.	
Ashland, Ore.	11,000	Immediately	.38 special 4″ bbl., combat masterpiece.	Issued			SA–DA		Additional course night firing.
Atlanta, Ga.	487,455				14	8			
Aurora, Colo.	48,548		Chambered for 357, loaded with 38 spl. 4″-6″.	Purchased			BE–PPC SA–DA	Shot gun, machine gun, .45 automatic.	
Bakersfield, Calif.	66,000				14	4			
Bay City, Mich.	55,000				12	10		Shot gun, machine gun.	
Baltimore, Md.	925,000	After qualifying, usually by 4th week.	4″ bbl.	Issued	33		PPC SA–DA	Shot gun, 12 gauge.	FBI shotgun course and bobber targets.
Boston, Mass.	697,197				20	1.3			
Brea, Calif.	13,000	After a minimum 3 hours training.	.38-4″ or 6″ bbl.	Purchased	19		BE–PPC SA–DA	Shotgun, tear gas gun.	2 hours night firing.
Buffalo, New York	481,453	Upon completion of bulls eye training.	6 shot,4″ bbl.	do	13		BE–PPC SA–DA	Shotgun	Night firing, bobber targets, role playing.
Chicago, Ill.	3,550,404	17th week of training.	.38 or .357 4″ bbl.	do	58	5	BE–PPC SA–DA	do	Deactivated guns, red bbl. for classroom.
Baton Rouge, La.	166,000	Immediately	.38 special combat masterpiece.	Issued	40		BE–PPC	do	FBI films, NRA slides.
Cincinnati, Ohio	503,998				40	7	SA–DA	Machine gun, shotgun.	Running man course; tear gas.
Columbus, Ohio	471,316				55	9			
Council Bluffs, Iowa	52,957	Immediately	.38, 4′′ bbl.	Issued				22 cal. revolver.	
Dallas, Tex.	679,684				64	12	SA–DA PPC	Shotgun, machine gun, rifle, 22 caliber pistol.	Gas shells, grenades, riot gun, cutaway models of chemical agent, overhead projection transparencies.
Dayton, Ohio	262,332				43	9		Tear gas	
Detroit, Mich.	1,670,144				50	11			
Duncan, Okla.	20,009	Immediately	.38 or .357 caliber.	Purchased	8				
Elko, Nev.	6,298	do	.38 or .357 4″ or 6″ bbl.	Issued an M & P. 4″ may purchase.	8-12		SA–DA PPC–BE	Shotgun	Bobber targets
Eugene, Oreg.	50,977				20	9			

(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)
TRAINING				INSERVICE TRAINING		
All at once or over period of time	Tests given — qualifying score	Basis for qualifying score	Do recruits fail to qualify?	Training of experienced officers	Do experienced officers fail to qualify?	Opinions, observations and comments
Spread out						Start during fourth week.
Spread out	BE–max. 300, PPC–max. 300, Pass 300 of 600.		Yes–removal or permission to requalify.			Training given at North Virginia Police Academy.
	PPC course, 70 passing.	Reasonable and attainable average person	Yes–additional help until able to qualify.	4 times a year PPC shotgun M–1 carbine.	Yes, additional training.	FBI instructor; belief that is difficult to make a top shooter of middle-aged man.
Spread out						2 shooting days of 7 hours 2nd and 4th weeks.
All at once						Firearms training on 5th, 6th, 7th and 8th days.
4-week period	Written test and 80 out of 100.	Maryland statute.	Yes–dropped from department.	30 rounds and 1 day monthly PPC.	Yes, must qualify, additional in-service training.	Satisfied with present program. 2-week inservice training 4 times DA course, 6 times over PPC, 2 times over shot gun course.
	BE 210 of 300, bobber 66 hits of 100; PPC 400 of 600.		Does not graduate; may practiceon own time.	5 out of each 6 months BE and PPC.	Yes, additional training.	Realistic policy stresses officer's responsibility; trainee does not load till after basic training.
7-week period	BE 225, PPC 240.					
29-week period	60 percent	Minimum qualifying Camp Perry course.	No	3 times a year modified PPC 25 yds.	Yes, additional training.	Experimenting with moving man targets and moving picture targets.
All at once	75 percent PPC		Yes	Once a year PPC and shotgun	Yes, no action taken.	
						Firearms training entire 12th week.
Some training by field sergeant in charge of shift.	None	None	No			In process of acquiring outdoor range; when program goes into effect tentative plan to pull a man from service if he fails to qualify.
Initial 1-day and 1 competitive match PPC.	70 percent colt silhouette target.	Fair score for beginner.	Yes–given additional help until they do	Several competitive matches a year.	No passing mark	Training should be expanded and improved—night firing, moving picture targets; fleels there should be a minimum qualifying score.
All at once	75 PPC; 75 bobber targets.	Realistic minimum.	No	Twice a year on PPC.		
do						Firearms training in 6th and 7th week after final exam.

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
					RECRUIT FIREARMS				
Police agency	Population	When armed? Before, during or after basic training	Weapon used	Is weapon issued or purchased	Number of hours	Percent of total hours	Type of course	Training in other weapons	Special devices and techniques
Fairfield, Calif.	14,968	After satisfactory qualification.	.38 or .357	Purchased	14	8			
Farmington, Conn.	10,813	Immediately	.38 4" bbl.	Full timers issued; part timers purchased.					
Ferguson, Mo.	22,952	do	.38 combat masterpiece.	Issued; off duty must be purchased.	40			Shotgun, gas gun, grenades.	
Ft. Lauderdale, Fla.	83,648	do	.38 4" bbl.	Purchased	56		SA–DA PPC–BE	Shotgun	Charts sighting bobber targets; film slide.
Fresno, Calif.	133,929				18	9	BE–PPC	Shotgun	Night firing
Grand Rapids, Mich.	202,379	3d week			28	5			
Hilo, Hawaii	25,966				7	3			
Honolulu, Hawaii	294,194	Upon completion of 3 weeks training.	.38 combat masterpiece.	Issued	48		SA–DA PPC	AR–15 carbine; shotgun; gas gun; mace.	Night firing
Houston, Tex.	938,219				46	7			
Idaho Falls, Idaho	35,711	Within 1 week	.357 magnum	Issued	28	33	SA–DA BE–PPC	Shotgun; gas gun.	
Independence, Mo.	84,771				16	6			
Indianapolis, Ind.	491,360				89	15			
Jacksonville, Fla.	201,030	Upon completion of training.	4" bbl.	Issued; given on retirement.			SA–DA BE–PPC	Shotgun; machine gun; gas gun.	
Jacksonville, Ill.	21,690	Immediately	.38 special 4" bbl.	Purchased	12				
Kalamazoo, Mich.	82,089				15	12		Shotgun; gas gun.	
Kansas City, Mo.	475,539	After he has qualified (2 months).	K-38 .38 special.	Issued	62		DA PPC	Shotgun	Skeet
Kenosha, Wis.	67,899		.38 special		20	4		Shotgun; machine gun; gas gun.	
Lakewood, Ohio	66,154				12	8			
Las Vegas, Nev.	64,405				32	11			Night firing
Lexington, Ky.	62,810				32	4			
Lexington, N. C.	16,093	After being taken to range.	.38 special 4" bbl.	Issued			PPC	Riot gun; machine gun; gas gun.	
Long Beach, Calif.	344,168				32	7			
Los Angeles, Calif.	2,479,015				56	10		Chemical agents	Night firing

(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)
TRAINING				INSERVICE TRAINING		
All at once or over period of time	Tests given – qualifying score	Basis for qualifying score	Do recruits fail to qualify?	Training of experienced officers	Do experienced officers fail to qualify?	Opinions, observations and comments
All at once	80 percent PPC	Until indicates control and competence.	Yes	Once each month; maintain 80 percent.	Yes; rescheduled; merit increase withheld.	One of California's highest qualification requirements; pay increases awarded and withheld with shooting proficiency or lack of it.
	60 percent FBI combat course.		Yes–not assigned until able to qualify	Twice a year; same qualification.	Yes; must keep shooting until qualified.	Should have more training; qualification score should be raised.
All at once	65 percent PPC	FBI	Yes–more instruction until qualified	3 times a year, 8 hours each time.	Yes; men repeat course.	Need more training shotgun. Recruit does not carry revolver until basic training is completed—16 weeks.
do	65 percent PPC, 70 percent other.		Yes, dropped from department.	Once a month PPC.	Yes; scheduled for additional instruction.	Minimum qualifying score by state law.
All at once						Firearms training begins 3d week.
All at once	60 percent PPC	FBI	Yes, additional training; must pass before graduation.	Once each year; PPC and refresher courses.	Yes, return for additional instruction.	Suggests use of actual scene mockups.
Spread out	70 percent		No	Once a year; not regularly.	Yes, nothing done	More training needed; training is lax. Because local area conducive to hunting it is felt most men can handle weapons.
All at once						Start firearms training in 4th week.
4-week period	60 percent PPC		Yes, training given until qualified.	Once a year	Yes, given additional instruction	Satisfied with present firearms training program; recruits receive a minimum of 200 hours training in all subjects.
3 or 4 days in sequence.	None	None	No	Irregular, PPC	Not graded	
						Recruits fire minimum of 200 rounds.
1 month period	470 out of 600 PPC.	NRA	Yes, dropped from department	Minimum 8 hours a year.	Yes, extra training.	Experienced officers trained in 12-gauge shotgun, submachine gun, gas gun, automatic rifle.
Spread out						Firearms training in 4th and 6th weeks.
All at once	70 percent			3 times a year; all weapons.	No	

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
							RECRUIT FIREARMS		
Police Agency	Population	When armed? Before, during or after basic training	Weapon used	Is weapon issued or purchased	Number of hours	Percent of total hours	Type of course	Training in other weapons	Special devices and techniques
Louisville, Ky.	389,044	During 9th week of training.	.38 special 4″ bbl.	Issued	70		SA–DA BE–PPC	Shotgun; machine gun; 30.06 pepper fogger.	
Lower Merion, Pa.	59,420				30	10			
Mahwah, N. J.	11,000	After completing firearms training.	.38 caliber	Issued	40		DA PPC	Shotgun; machine gun; gas gun.	
McPherson, Kan.	9,996	Immediately	.38 special 4″ bbl.	Purchased	4		No standard course		
Miami, Fla.	291,688				68	12			
Midland, Tex.	62,625	Immediately	.38 special	Purchased	40		SA–DA BE–PPC	Shotgun; machine gun; 22 caliber trooper combat masterpiece.	
Minneapolis, Minn.	482,872				27	6			
Montgomery, Ala.	134,393	Immediately	.38 special	Issued	36		SA–DA BE–PPC	Shotgun; 30 caliber bine 30.06.	
Montreal, Canada	1,222,255		.38 caliber	do	24		SA–DA BE–PPC	22 caliber revolver	
Mount Pleasant, Michigan	14,875	Immediately	do	do			None	Shotgun .351 and 30.06.	
Natick, Mass.	28,831	Immediately	.38 caliber 4″ bbl.	do			FAMILIARIZATION		
New Haven, Conn.	141,752				40	10			
Newport News, Va.	113,662						SA–DA BE–PPC	Shotgun; gas gun; machine gun; rifle.	
New Orleans, La.	627,525				58	13	SA–DA BE–PPC		
New York, N. Y.	7,781,984	Immediately	M & P, 4″ bbl.	Purchased	56	8	SA–DA BE–PPC		Films; slides; cutaways; turning targets; moving man targets; charts.
Norfolk, Va.	304,869				26	11			
Oakland, Calif.	367,548				33	6		Shotgun; gas gun; carbines.	Chemical agents
Oklahoma City, Okla.	324,253	Must have gun at time of appointment	.38 caliber 4″ bbl.	Purchased	72		DA PPC	Shotgun, gas gun; machine gun.	
Pasadena, Calif.	116,407				12	4		Shotgun	
Pensacola, Fla.	56,752				26	13			
Philadelphia, Pa.	2,002,512	After graduation	.38 special 4″ bbl.	Issued .	28		PPC		

(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)
TRAINING				INSERVICE TRAINING		
All at once or over period of time	Tests given – qualifying score	Basis for qualifying score	Do recruits fail to qualify?	Training of experienced officers	Do experienced officers fail to qualify?	Opinions, observations and comments
10 days consecutively.	70 percent		Yes, must pass by graduation or dismissed.	Every 3 months; must qualify.	Yes, additional training.	Experienced officers should qualify each month.
All at once	195–225		No	Twice a year	Yes, additional training.	Should be more training.
do	None		No	Every 3 months and shotgun.	Yes, additional training.	Mandatory training should be started (recruits).
						Firearms practice for 30 minutes each day during lunch.
4 hours daily for 2 weeks.	60 percent PPC		No	Voluntary basis	No	Proficiency rating has increased voluntary range attendance 200 percent, recruit issued revolver on appointment; may be 6 months before trained.
						Firearms training begins in 7th week.
Spread out	None		No	None	No	Present standard unsatisfactory should qualify once annually at least.
do	60 percent PPC		Yes, given 1 or 2 more chances.	Voluntary except once annually required.	do	Experienced men must requalify for promotion; should be more training recruits.
None	None		None	Voluntary and free	None	Should be qualifying standard on state level; reliance on members having had previous firearms experience.
	None			Voluntary and once a year.		New recruits sent to qualified school for training within 6 months; should start training men before putting them to work.
	70 out of 100			Bulls-eye and silhouette course; no mention of frequency.		
6-week period	60 slow BE; 60 timed BE; 180 of300 slow timed, rapid fire.	Established policy decision.	Yes, additional training.	2 or 3 times a year; SA, DA, PPC.	Yes, extra training until qualified.	
All at once						Firearms training in 7th week by FBI at Tidewater Police Academy.
All at once; 8 to 9 days.	420 of 600 PPC.	Considered proficient to carry.	Yes, additional training until qualified.	4 times a year	Yes, must return to range and qualify.	Need more money for a better program.
4 consecutive days.	60 PPC		No	Once a year	Yes, additional training.	

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
					RECRUIT FIREARMS				
Police agency	Population	When armed? Before during or after basic training	Weapon used	Is weapon issued or purchased	Number of hours	Percent of total hours	Type of course	Training in other weapons	Special devices and techniques
Phoenix, Ariz.	505,666				37	8		Shotgun	Tear gas
Pontiac, Mich.	82,233				20	8			do
Providence, R. I.	187,061				50	12		Shotgun; rifle; machine gun.	Gasses and gas guns.
Reynoldsburg, Ohio	7,793	Immediately	Model "16".	Issued	12	8	PPC	Shotgun; 30 caliber carbine; 30.06 rifle.	Plastic loads
Rochester, Minn.	47,797	After completion basic training.	.38 caliber 4" bbl.	do	32		SA–DA BE–PPC	22 revolver; 30.30 rifle; shotgun; gas gun.	
Sacramento, Calif.	237,712	do	do	Purchased	8		PPC		
St. Louis, Mo.	750,026				52	9		Shotgun	Tear gas
St Petersburg, Fla.	181,298	Immediately			63	14	SA–DA	do	Night firing
Salem, Ore.	49,142				26	8		do	Gas devices
San Francisco, Calif.	740,316	Immediately	.41 caliber M & P.	Issued	40		SA–DA BE–PPC		Bobber targets
Santa Clara, Calif.	58,880	do	.38 or .357 4" to 6".	Purchased	16	6	DA–PPC	Shotgun	Clay pigeons
Sheboygan, Wis.	45,747	do	.38 cal. combat masterpiece.	Issued	16		SA 50 ft. BE	Gas gun; 30.08 caliber rifle; shotgun; 22 caliber rifle.	
South Bend, Ind.	132,445	do	.38 caliber 4" bbl.	do	40		SA–DA PPC		
Toledo, Ohio	318,003				63	12		Shotgun	Tear gas devices
Washington, D.C.	763,956				10	2		Those weapons used by the civil distrubance unit.	
Wausau, Wis.	31,943	Immediately	.38 caliber	Issued			SA BE		
Western Springs, Ill.	13,233	do	.38 or .357 4" bbl.	Purchased	18	11	SA–DA BE–PPC	Shotgun	
Wichita Falls, Tex.	116,000				31	9			
Whittier, Calif.	33,663				19	7			Night firing
Arkansas State Police	1,786,272	Immediately	.357 magnum	Issued	40		SA–DA BE–PPC	12 gauge shotgun.	Bobber targets; shotgun; AR–15 familiarization.
Arlington County, Va.	163,401	After 8 hours of instruction.	.38 special	do	56		DA	Shotgun	

(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)
TRAINING				INSERVICE TRAINING		
All at once or over period of time	Tests given – qualifying score	Basis for qualifying score	Do recruits fail to qualify?	Training of experienced officers	Do experienced officers fail to qualify?	Opinions, observations and comments
						Firearms training at Oakland Community College.
Spread out	70 percent PPC		No	Once a month in summer.	Yes, additional training.	Should be a standard qualification for police departments. Need money.
do	220 out of 300		Yes	3 times a year.	do	More training needed.
All at once	70 percent		No	PPC twice a year; shotgun once a year.	Yes, given limited duty.	Should have monthly qualifications; pay incentive helps.
All at once; 9th week.						Training given at Pinellas Police Academy.
Spread out	300 of 400		Yes, 25 percent of recruits fail to qualify.	Every 6 months	Yes, no action taken.	Recommend continuous 5 or 6 days firearms training at beginning of training.
do	75 percent PPC	N.R.A.	Yes, additional training; dropped from department if still fails to qualify.	Every other month PPC.	Yes, additional training.	Recommend mandatory training each month.
All at once	60 of 100 50 ft. BE slow fire.	do	Yes, given additional help till qualified.	Once each month	do	May go into an incentive pay program.
Over 8-week period.			Yes	Once each year, 1 hour.	Yes	Should be required to qualify or be relieved of duty. Will change in near future recruits will not receive weapon until trained.
	Slow, 25 yards; time, 15 yards; Rapid, 15 yards on man target.		Yes, extra help until qualified.			
All at once	Until able to handle weapon safely and shoot reasonably well.		No	Once a month, twice a month or weekly depending on quality of scores.	Yes, no penalty.	Feel that training is not adequate; building a PPC range.
Spread-out	200 of 300 BE, 110 of 300 PPC.	N.R.A.	do	Weekly at least 1 hour	Yes, they are retrained.	Should be an increase in other phases of training—human relations, etc.
All at once						Firearms training begins in 9th week, by FBI.
						Firearms training at Rio Hondo Jr. College.
5-week period	All courses 70 percent		Yes, some fail to qualify.	PPC at least once a month.	Yes, given additional training; no action taken.	Favor training all at once.
	210 on modified PPC.		Yes, dropped from department.	PPC and shotgun no information as to requency	Yes, additional training.	

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
RECRUIT FIREARMS									
Police Agency	Population	When armed? Before, during or after basic training	Weapon used	Is weapon issued or purchased	Number of hours	Percent of total hours	Type of course	Training in other weapons	Special devices and techniques
FBI	....	On completion of training.	.38 caliber 4″ bbl.	do	88	17	SA–DA BE–PPC	.45–.38 automatic; .357 Magnum; shotgun; gas gun; rifle.	Bobber targets; electric dueling targets; running man multiple targets; surprise targets, combat village; skeet.
Indiana State Police	4,662,498	do	.38 combat masterpiece or .38 bodyguard.	do	44	....	SA–DA BE–PPC	Shotgun, Thompson AR	Skeet
Commonwealth of Massachusetts	5,148,578	....	....	....	24	15	....	....	....
Nassau County N. Y.	1,300,171	When qualified	.38 caliber	Purchased	32	....	SA–DA BE–PPC	Shotgun indoctrination.	Night shooting; exertion course.
New Mexico, State Police	951,023	Upon graduation	.357 magnum	Issued	59	....	SA–DA BE–PPC	....	....
New York City Port Authority, N. Y.	....	After completion of training.	.38 caliber 4″ bbl.	do	40	10	SA–DA BE–PPC	.22 caliber	....
New York City Transit Authority, N. Y.	....	Immediately	.38 caliber	Purchased	65	9	SA–DA BE–PPC	....	Turning targets
New York State Police	16,782,304	After graduation	.38 caliber 4″ bbl.	Issued	80	....	SA–DA BE–PPC	Shotgun; tear gas gun.	Moving target course; skeet.
Ohio State Highway Patrol	9,706,307	Immediately	.38 caliber	do	21	....	SA–DA PPC	Shotgun; machine gun; .351 rifle.	Night shooting
Oregon State Training School	2,697,000	....	....	....	21	13	....	....	....
Prince George's County, Md.	357,394	After 8 weeks	.38 caliber 6″ bbl.	Issued	48	10	SA–DA PPC	Shotgun	....
Puerto Rico	2,697,000	Upon completion basic training.	.38 caliber 4″ bbl.	do	53	....	SA–DA BE–PPC	AR–15 machine gun; shotgun.	....
Rhode Island State Police	359,488	At start of firearms training (5th day, 3d week).	.38 caliber 6″ bbl.	do	32	....	SA–DA BE–PPC	Shotgun; machine gun; gas gun.	Night shooting
U.S. Park Police	....	Immediately	.38 caliber	do	80	....	SA–DA BE–PPC	22 caliber revolver.	....
Suffolk County, Park Police	666,784	During 2d week	.38 caliber	do	40	8	SA–DA BE–PPC	Shotgun	Tear gas, mace, films, slides.

(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)
TRAINING				INSERVICE TRAINING		
All at once or over period of time	Tests given — qualifying score	Basis for qualifying score	Do recruits fail to qualify?	Training of experienced officers	Do experienced officers fail to qualify?	Opinions, observations and comments
5 consecutive days and 6 consecutive days, 3d and 7th weeks.	All courses 60 percent	Some recruits have difficulty qualifying; 60 percent get almost through; proficiency improves with time.	Yes, additional training; if still fail, dismissed.	8 times a year; 4 indoor Bulls-eye; 4 outdoor all weapons, PPC.	No.	60 percent is minimum acceptable score. With training an agent will reach a peak after about 7 years. For 1968, FBI agents averaged 91.4 on the PPC.
All during last week of training.	Bulls-eye 200 PPC 70	Based on past precedent.	No	Twice a year PPC and Bulls-eye.	Yes, additional training.	Bulls-eye shooters can do well on other courses, but the reverse is not necessarily true.
......	......	......	......	......	......	......
Spread out over 3 weeks.	Modified PPC 60–100.	Attainable with proper training	Yes, additional training.	Every 18 months PPC and Bulls-eye.	Yes, additional training.	Should shoot more; need more intensive training outdoor range.
All at once	Same as FBI.	FBI	Yes, rejected; may reapply.	Every 3 months	Yes, reshoot until qualified.	Experienced men shoot shotgun (sawed off) and tear gas every 3 months.
Spread out	70 percent Bulls-eye; 50 percent silhouette	Standard normal attainable for trained police.	Yes, additional training; transfer to other job possible.	3 times a year	Yes, additional training on own time within 30 days still fail to qualify complaint.	......
do	65 percent	Established normal standard.	Yes, additional training.	do	Yes, buy ammunition; additional training.	Would like own facilities, including outdoor range. Detectives and plainclothesmen using 2" bbl. gun at work must qualify with that weapon.
6 to 10 weeks.	190 out of 300	Established policy decision	Yes, dropped from academy.	do	Yes, weapon taken away; other duties.	......
Spread out	210 with 50 hits out of maximum 200 with 60 hits.	......	Yes, additional training; must qualify to graduate.	Revolver twice a year; rifle and shotgun once a year.	Yes, additional training.	Recommend: (1) exertion courses; (2) pay incentive; (3) do away with SA; (4) do away with 50 yards. Recruit not permitted ammunition till after graduation.
All at once	......	......	......	......	......	Firearms training on three consecutive days by FBI.
All at once	60 percent	FBI	No	Attempted once a year on PPC.	......	......
Spread out	65 percent	Experience	Yes, additional training.	Once a year	Yes, additional training.	Recommend officers fire old ammunition at range, leave with fresh ammunition. Maximum range 25 yards.
do	195 out of 300 – 25 yards.	State law	No	do	No	Should be more emphasis on night firing.
All at once	75 percent all courses	Less than 75 percent shows officer lacks reasonable effectiveness in marksmanship and safety for bystanders.	......do......	3 times a year for members below rank of lieutenant.	Yes, additional training.	Training should be quarterly, strict high standards; lieutenants should be required to participate. Experienced officers fire twice a year PPC; once night firing.
Spread out	Average of 200 out of maximum 300 on all courses	Slightly higher qualification than FBI.	No, extra help until qualify.	Once a year full day; 200 out of possible 300 required.	Yes, must shoot on own time until they qualify.	Winter remedial course, voluntary. 2 tournaments a year, free ammunition; night firing began May 1969 for experienced officers.

Recruit Firearms Training in New York City Police Department

A statistical study of the recruit firearms training records of 379 recruits randomly selected (a 1.3 percent sample) from the years 1961 through 1969 was undertaken in the early spring of 1969. Forms P.A. 11 (Record of Revolver Instruction) contain the firearms shooting records of all recruits processed through the police academy. During the 16-week training program, eight slow fire scores are recorded for every recruit, at 10, 12, 14, 16, 18, 20, 34, and 36 hours of instruction. It should be noted that there is no shooting until the 10th hour since the firearms training program begins with lectures on safety, range rules, the filling out of forms, nomenclature, revolver manual, revolver, and leather inspection, dry firing and so on. In addition, single action training ends after 20 hours; the 34- and 36-hour scores are for testing purposes. The average scores of all 379 recruits for each scoring period were determined and plotted on the charts, Figures B-1 and B-2, pages 202 and 203.

For purposes of analysis the 379 randomly selected recruits were divided into two groups—the 190 better shooters and the 189 poor shooters. As can be seen from the chart, the better shooters fired an average 85.7 slow fire, single action, on their very first shooting occasion. Thereafter their shooting proficiency increased relatively little to a high of 90.7 at the end of all recruit training. The 50 percent of the recruits who were the poorer shooters averaged only 57.1 on their first shooting and made rapid progress to a high of 75.0 after 36

AVERAGE FIREARMS PROFICIENCY OVERTIME DURING RECRUIT TRAINING AND IN-SERVICE TRAINING (1961-1969)

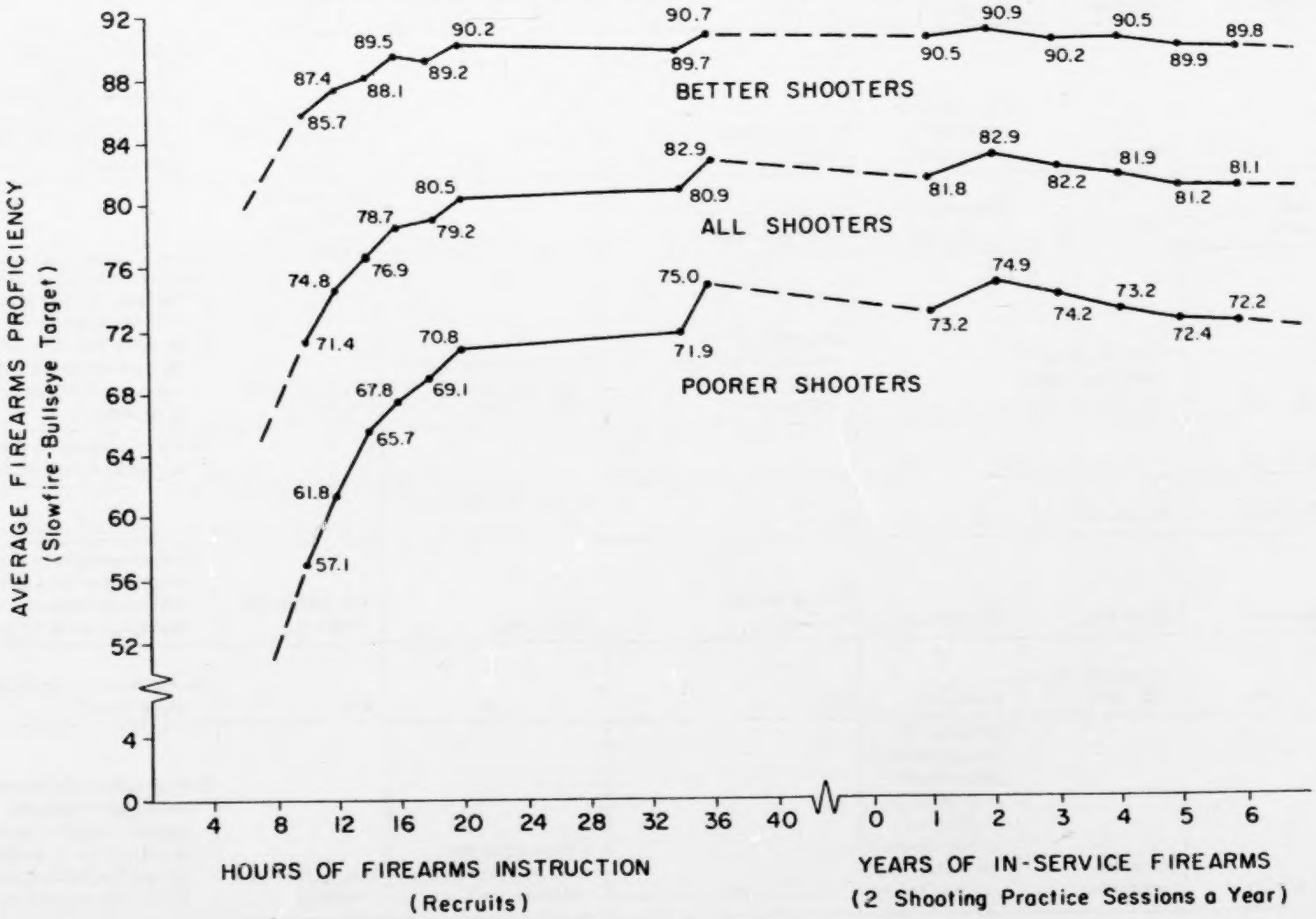


FIGURE B-1

hours of firearms training. The average scores of all 379 recruits advanced from 71.4 to 82.9 during the recruit training period (average of 9 years, 1961 to 1969).

It is clear from Figure B-1 that at the conclusion of single action training at 20 hours, a plateau is reached and shooting proficiency appears to level off except for the 36-hour score. The reason for the rise in proficiency at 36 hours is the fact that this is the single action qualification score and recruits strive to shoot their best at this time. Having fired the same course at 34 hours (which is scored) the recruit knows exactly what he must do to qualify. Every man below 60 knows he is in danger of failing to qualify, and every man under 70 cannot be overconfident that he will score 60 on the qualification test. Thus the poorer shooters work harder and practice more, both dry firing and actual practice firing, prior to the 36-hour test. As a result, the 36-hour test scores indicate a substantial improvement for the poorer shooters and a smaller improvement for the better shooters. For example, at 34 hours, 68 men scored 70 or below, compared to only 40 men at 36 hours. At 34 hours, 24 men scored 60 or below, compared to only 10 men at 36 hours.

The period on the chart between 20 and 34 hours is a period of double action and combat shooting. These scores cannot be compared with single action bull's-eye shooting. The 34th hour shooting score is considered a review and warmup for the 36-hour qualifying test in single action. That is the last single action shooting done until the recruit leaves the police academy and is assigned to a field command, after which he receives the regular inservice firearms training twice a year.

For the better shooters at 20 hours, the standard deviation (measure of spread about the mean) was

AVERAGE FIREARMS PROFICIENCY DURING RECRUIT TRAINING OVER A PERIOD OF A LACK OF TRAINING OR PRACTICE AND OVER A PERIOD OF IN-SERVICE FIREARMS TRAINING

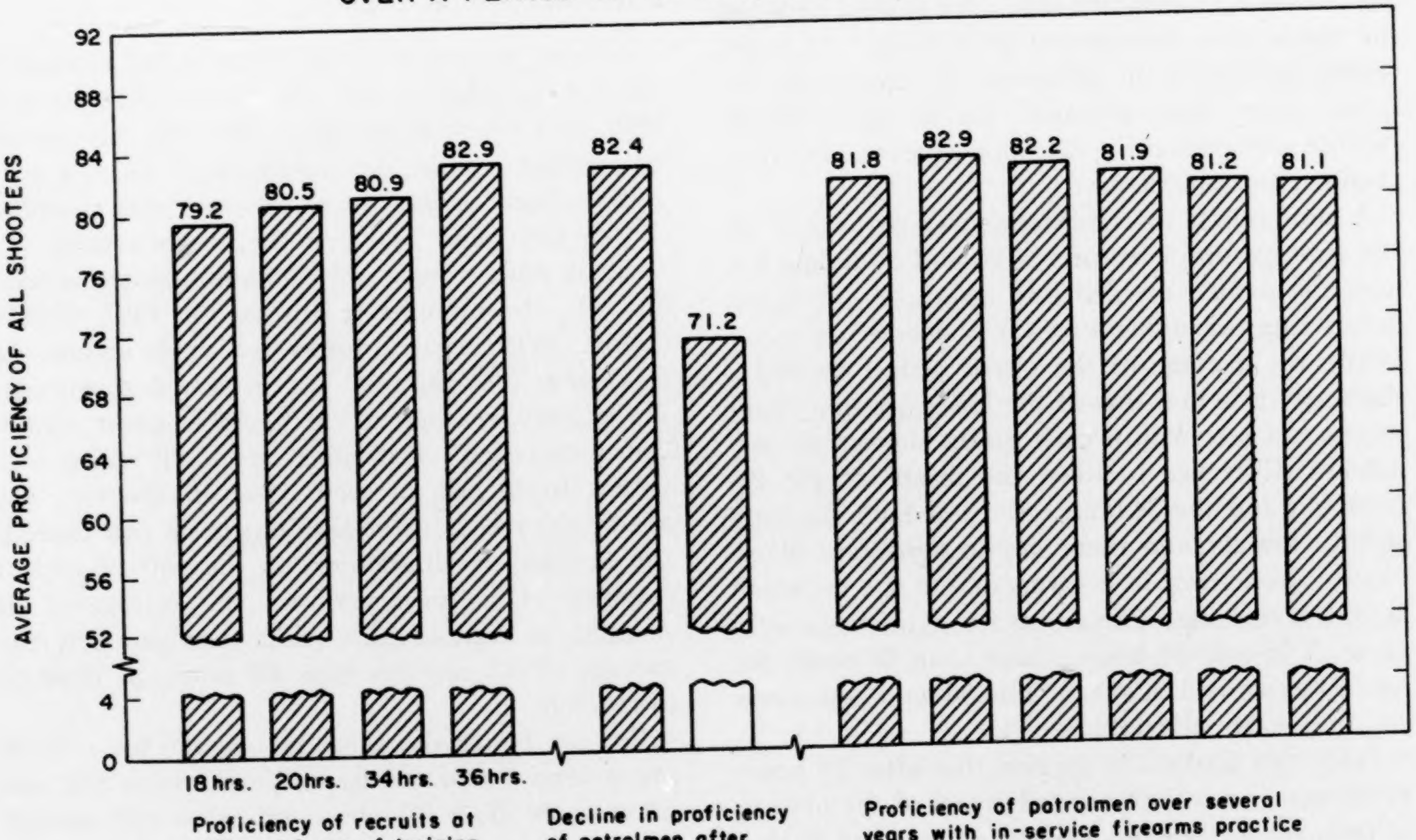


FIGURE B-2

found to be 3.95. This means that 16 percent of this group are shooting four points below the mean and 2½ percent are shooting eight points below the mean. For the poorer shooters the standard deviation is 7.43, which means that 16 percent of this group are shooting approximately 7.4 points below the mean and 2½ percent are shooting approximately 5 points below the mean. It should be noted that those men shooting 15 points below the mean are failing to qualify (70.8 minus 15 equals 55.8; minimum qualification is 60). For all 379 shooters there was a standard deviation of 10.65, meaning that 16 percent will be shooting approximately 10.6 below the mean and 2.5 percent will be shooting 21 points below the mean (80.5 minus 21 equals 59.5).

A test of significance was performed on the mean score of recruits after 20 hours and after 34 hours (confidence level 95 percent). For all recruits in the sample, the mean score at 20 hours was 80.5 and at 34 hours 80.9. Using the standard error of the difference, a "*t*" test was performed and it was found that no significant difference existed between the means over that period of training. In other words, no significant difference in proficiency resulted from the increased period of training. Double action shooting does not appear to improve single action proficiency.

A similar test of significance was performed on the same group of recruits at 20 and 34 hours, but with the sample divided into an upper and lower group after arranging scores in a decreasing order. While the average of the upper group showed a slight decrease and that of the lower group a slight increase, a test within each group showed no significant difference between the means of the 20-hour test and the 34-hour test. For both the high and the low shooters there was no significant difference in proficiency in firearms due to the increased period of training. These tests for significance were made at 20 and 34 hours rather than 36 hours for reasons explained above. (The 36-hour test scores are, in a sense artificial.)

From this analysis it appears that after 20 hours the better group have not only reached the plateau of their proficiency but present no problem in that the poorest shooter in this group is shooting only 8 points below the mean of 90.2 or a score of 82.2, which is the department average and well above minimum qualifications. Inasmuch as it appears he does not improve thereafter, it can be stated that 20 hours is optimum for single action training for the better shooters.

For the 50 percent of recruits who are in the poorer category, this may not be the case. The standard deviation of this group indicates that a small percentage fail to qualify at 20 hours. These men will need additional work, but it would be unwise to extend the less important single action training phase beyond the second day. To do so would be to unprofitably use the time of the majority to accommodate the few and to leave inadequate time for the more important double action combat training which follows. Recommendation is made in chapter 9 for 16 hours of single action training followed by 24 hours of double action training. Those men who fail the single action test on the second day would be given special help and ample opportunity to practice. They would be retested on the third, fourth, and fifth days if necessary.

Inservice Firearms Training

A study was made of the scores of 331 randomly selected patrolmen over the years 1961 through 1966 (a 1.1-percent sample). During this period all members of the department fired twice a year at department ranges and three scores were recorded during each year: (1) Slow fire, single action; (2) total of slow, timed, and rapid fire, single action; and (3) the number of hits on the PPC, double action. With regard to slow fire, single action, the following is of interest. As indicated previously, the plateau reached at 20 hours is never significantly exceeded. Proficiency levels off and is consistent from year to year. For all shooters, the averages for each of the six years in no case exceeds the average of all shooters at the end of recruit training. Only in 1 year was the average of all shooters as high as 82.9, which was precisely the average of all recruits after 36 hours of firearms instruction.

For the better shooters, the average for each of the 6 years fluctuated by only one point and was never more than 0.7 above or below the average score of better shooting recruits at 20 hours of training.

The poorer shooting group showed the greatest fluctuation over the 6-year period, from a high of 74.9 to a low of 72.2. The average of about 73.4

was 1.6 less than the average of the poorer recruit group at the end of their firearms training (75.0).

A test of significance was performed between the mean score of recruits after 34 hours and the mean score of experienced patrolmen on the same single action test over the 6-year period. In a "*t*" test using the standard error of the difference, it was found that no significant difference existed between the means of the recruits and the patrolmen. In other words, there is no difference between the proficiency of recruits after 34 hours of training and experienced patrolmen after a period of shooting practice. (Although it will later be shown that proficiency decreases over time, it is restored relatively quickly with practice, but does not improve with only two practice sessions a year.)

A similar test of significance was performed between the scores of recruits after 34 hours of training and those of experienced patrolmen after a practice session, dividing each sample into an upper and lower group. Although the mean score of patrolmen was slightly higher in both groups than that of the recruits, it was found that there was no significant difference between the means of each group. Thus, there is no significant difference between the proficiency of a patrolman after a period of practice and the proficiency of recruits after 34 hours of training.

An analysis of variance was performed for the sample scores of recruits after 34 hours and the scores of patrolmen after a day of practice. Again the test showed no change in proficiency over time. The indication is that whatever proficiency has been lost during a period without training or practice will be restored after a short period of practice.

Tests of significance between the means were performed between the scores of recruits at 36 hours of training and scores of experienced patrolmen after a day of practice. This was done for the average of all, the average of the better shooters and the average of the poorer shooters. Although the average of all recruits was slightly higher than the average of all patrolmen, the test showed no significant difference between the means. Neither was there a significant difference between the means of the poorer and better recruits and experienced patrolmen.

An analysis of variance was performed for the scores of recruits on the 36-hour qualifying test and the scores of patrolmen at the end of a day of practice for the 6-year period. Overall scores, scores of the upper groups and scores of the lower groups were used in separate tests. In all cases the calculated value was found to be greater than the value at the 95-percent confidence level, with a calculated value for the lower group greater than the value for the 99-percent level as well. This test shows that there is a significant decrease in proficiency over time from the scores at the recruit qualifying test to scores achieved by patrolmen, even after a practice session. This significance is probably caused by the explained increase in recruits' scores at 36 hours.

The conclusions of this analysis are as follows: There is a definite plateau of single action proficiency which is reached after approximately 20 hours of firearms instruction. Except for the brief period of improvement at 36 hours, which has been explained, it appears that the single action proficiency of members of the department remains relatively constant thereafter. Whatever proficiency is lost between retraining periods is quickly regained on the day of training.

Although the standard deviation for the better shooters over the years indicates that none are as low as the minimum acceptable level of 60, the standard deviation for the poorer shooters indicates that a significant number fail to achieve a qualifying score of 60 and must receive additional training, personal instruction and retesting in order to qualify. The importance of this fact is that if this group cannot qualify after a day of retraining and practice, what is their shooting proficiency over the next 6 months without practice? This point will be illustrated in the next section dealing with deterioration in firearms proficiency over time.

A necessary conclusion here, based on the experience of the FBI and that of other police agencies with relatively frequent periods of inservice training, is that this problem corrects itself in these agencies. That is, as the FBI explains, although their shooting proficiency requirement is relatively low for new special agents (60 percent in all courses), their experience is that proficiency increases over time for about 7 years before maximum proficiency is reached. This is true when the training cycle is short and periods of retraining are frequent. Thus, there is a steady rise in proficiency over time. In the case of the New York City Police Department and others which have relatively infrequent periods of retraining (twice a year), shooting proficiency is roughly maintained (al-

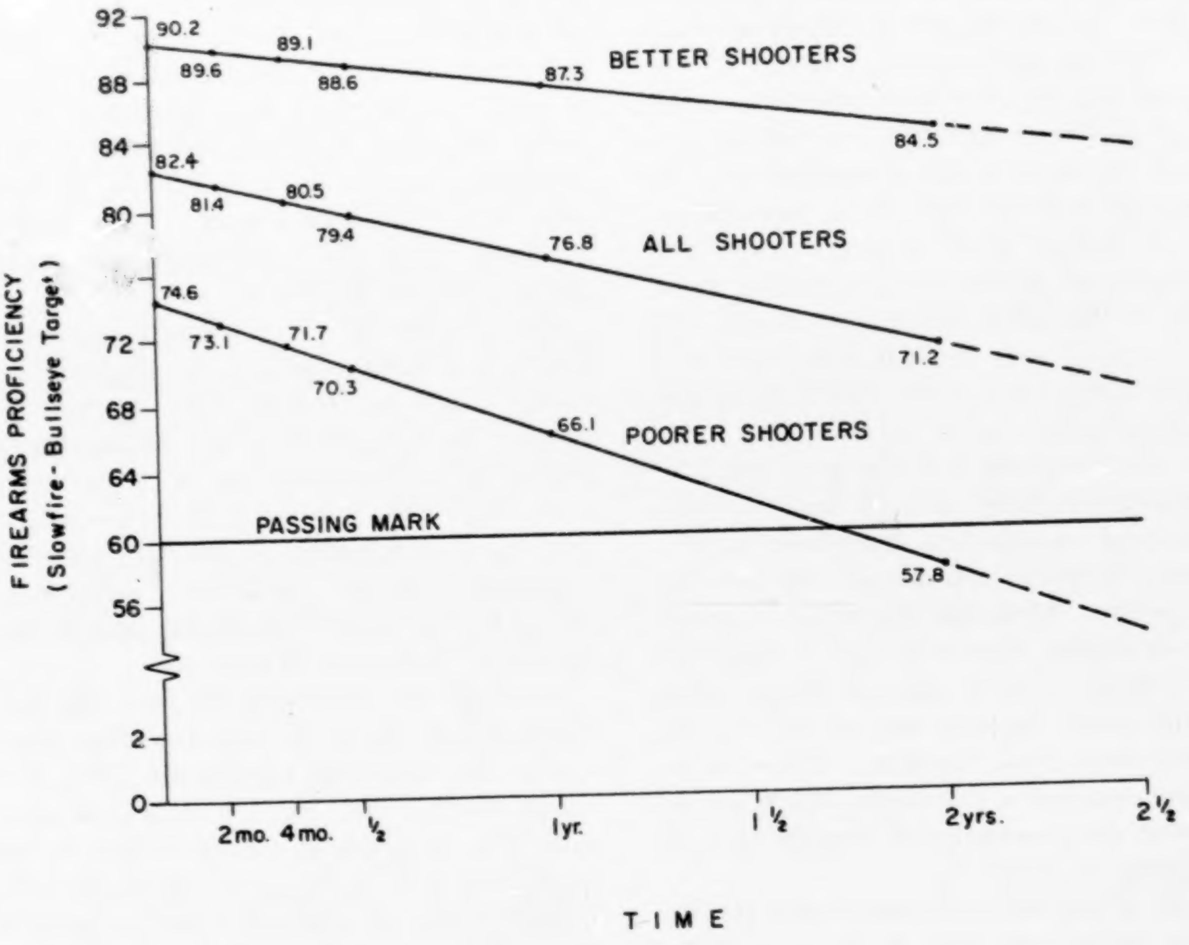

DETERIORATION IN FIREARMS PROFICIENCY OVERTIME WITHOUT FIREARMS TRAINING OR PRACTICE

FIGURE B-3

though the chart shows a very slight decline). There is no gain in proficiency over time. This indicates a need for more frequent retraining sessions.

Deterioration in Firearms Proficiency

Figure B-3 on page 206 indicates the deterioration in firearms proficiency over time when there is no firearms training or practice. Over a 2-week period in the spring of 1969, a group of 333 police officers who had not had any firearms training for an average of 2 years were tested. Before any practice shooting was done, these 333 men were required to fire 10 rounds slow fire, single action from 25 yards. The objective was to determine how much loss of proficiency had occurred in that average 2-year period before proficiency was restored by retraining and to determine the extent of restoration of shooting proficiency after the period of training.

The past shooting records of these 333 men (form P.A. 12, Record of Revolver Inspection, Instruction, and Practice) were examined and their last single action slow fire scores of about 2 years earlier were recorded and compared with the current score. The 333 men were divided into two groups: the 167 better and 166 poorer shooters. It was found that the average decrease in proficiency for the better shooters was 5.7. For all shooters the average loss in proficiency was 11.2. For the poorer shooters the average loss in proficiency was 16.8. It is clear that the 50 percent of all shooters in the better category lost considerably less proficiency over a period of time than the poorer shooters. In fact, it was consistently found that the poorer shooters (based upon their last scores 2 years earlier) showed a greater deterioration in firearms proficiency than the better shooters.

Figure B-3 on page 206 is basically a 2-point chart; that is, the average scores of 2 years ago and the present scores are the only calculated scores; the points on the line drawn between these calculated points are merely interpolations. Nevertheless, some observations may be made with a reasonable degree of validity. The current average score of the 166 poorer shooters was 57.8, which is 2.2 below minimum qualification. These men later improved their shooting proficiency as a result of the training session (confirming the finding that full proficiency is restored after a relatively short period of retraining).

The average score of all shooters after 2 years without training was 71.2, which is lower than the average scores of all the poorer shooters in the Police Department over a 6-year period, 73.4 (see Figure B-1). While this score is substantially above the minimum qualification of 60, the standard deviation indicates that a substantial number of men are shooting below minimum qualification.

Even though the scores indicated at the 1-year point have been interpolated, the standard deviation of the 66.1 average of the poorer shooters indicates a significant number who do not qualify. As a matter of fact, the standard deviation of the 76.8 average for all shooters after 1 year indicates that not only a number of men do not qualify, but a substantial number barely meet the minimum qualification.

A test of significance was performed between the last recorded scores (average of 2 years ago) and the scores of the same men at the recent test before practice. While the "*t*" test using the standard error shows no significant difference between the means over a period of time (although the calculated "*t*" values are much greater and closer to the selected "*t*" value of 1.96 than in previous tests), this fact is explained by the large standard error of the samples due to their wide range.

An analysis of variance was performed for the same former scores and current scores for all, upper and lower groups. In each case the analysis showed a relationship between the lapse of time and the proficiency of patrolmen. This indicated that time is a factor in the loss of shooting proficiency.

Although most of what has been said to this point has been based on single action shooting and proficiency, a double action study was conducted to determine the extent of restoration of proficiency after practice. For the 5-year period, 1962 through 1966, the average number of hits on the 50-round PPC was determined for 333 men. The averages are as follows:

	Hits
1962	38.4
1963	38.3
1964	39.1
1965	40.7
1966	44.4

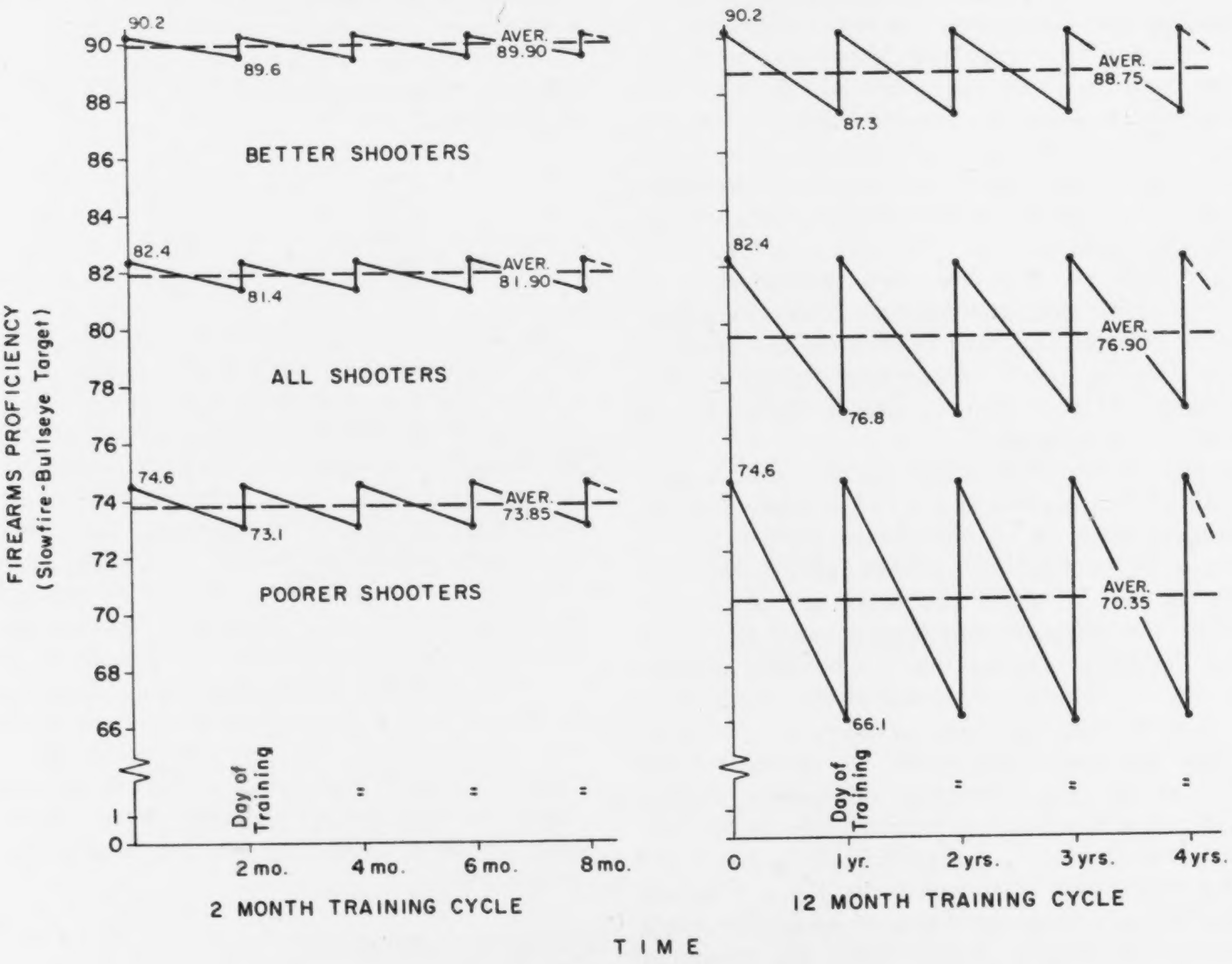
The average of these five averages is 40.2. These scores represent the results of the double action course at the end of a day of shooting practice.

While the single action proficiency of these men had dropped 6.3 percent for the better shooters to 22.6 percent for the poorer shooters, or an overall drop in proficiency of 13.6 percent, when these same 333 men fired the double action PPC course after a day of practice the average score was 46.8, an average of 6.6 hits better than the previous 5-year average. In addition, 23.4 percent of the men fired perfect scores compared to 21.1 percent in 1966 (the best year of the previous 5 years). This indicates that the shooting proficiency of police officers at the end of a day of shooting practice is fully restored and may actually show a slight (chance) temporary increase from former proficiency.

Frequency of Retraining

The following is a theoretical comparison of average shooting proficiency and deterioration with short and long training cycles. Two charts are presented. Figure B-4 on page 208 demonstrates the difference between a short training cycle (2 months) and a long training cycle (12 months). Figure B-5 on page 209 compares a 6-month training cycle (twice a year, as in New York City), with a 4-month training cycle (the recommended training cycle).

All four training cycles are shown on the charts in the form of a saw-tooth graph. The shortest training cycle (2 months) has a relatively flat saw tooth (theoretically this would be a straight line with continuous firearms training; that is, there would never be a loss in proficiency). The saw tooth of the 12-month training cycle is much more pronounced because there is a longer period between training sessions within which there is



COMPARISON OF AVERAGE SHOOTING PROFICIENCY AND DETERIORATION WITH SHORT AND LONG TRAINING CYCLES

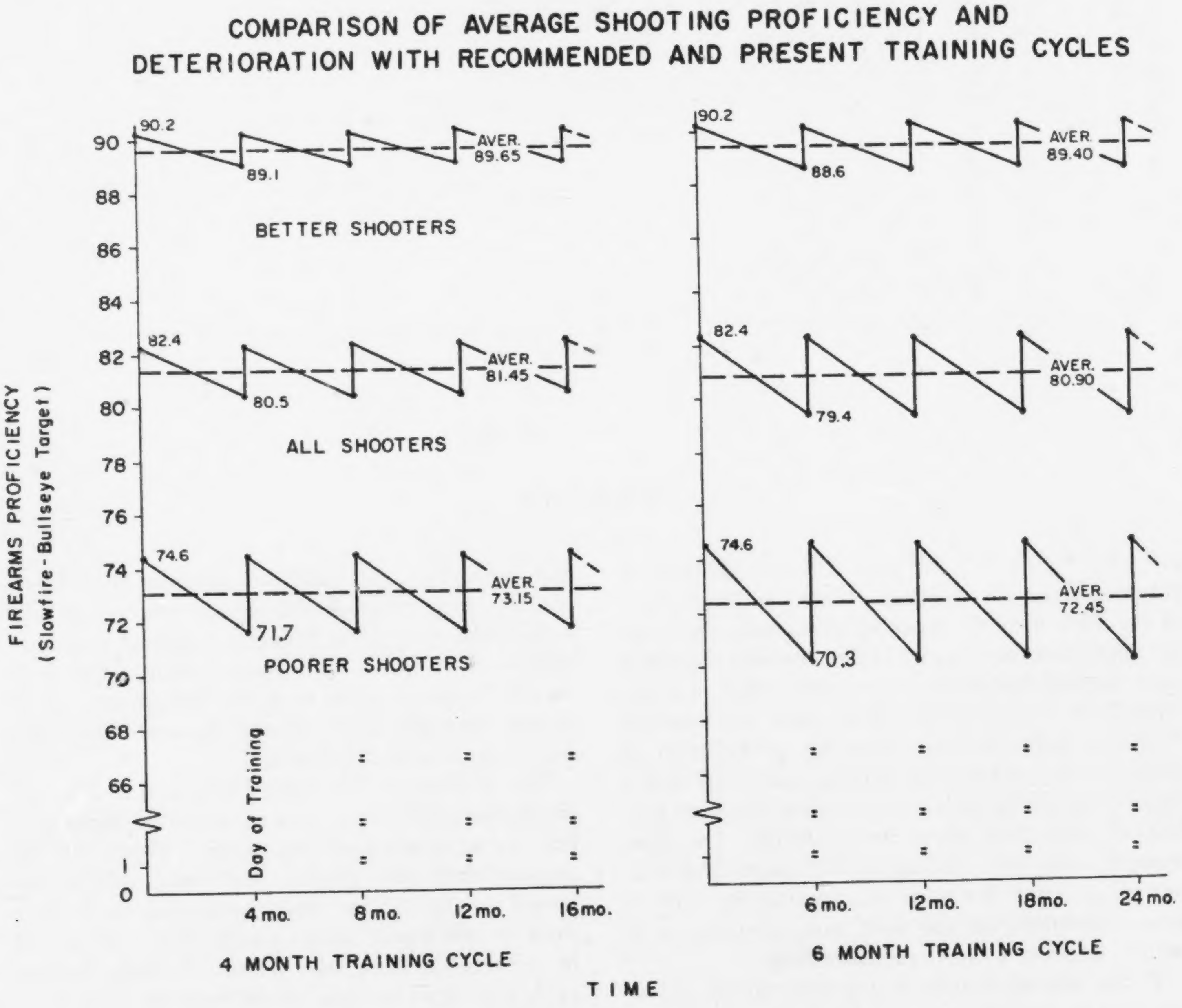
FIGURE B-4

more opportunity for loss of proficiency. As brought out in previous examples, shooting proficiency on the day of shooting practice is restored to former levels. Therefore, in every case on the charts, the upper point on the saw tooth represents the best average shooting proficiency of better shooters, poorer shooters, and all shooters. The lowest point on the saw tooth indicates the lowest average level of shooting proficiency during that period of no shooting practice. These scores have been taken from Fig. B-3 on page 206 "Deterioration in Firearms Proficiency Over Time Without Firearms Training or Practice." While these scores have been interpolated, they are considered sufficiently accurate for this comparative study.

It is seen from these charts that the shortest training cycle is most desirable. It indicates that at any given point in time, whether just before or just after a period of training, the firearms proficiency of police officers is close to maximum proficiency. This is contrasted with the 12-month training cycle where, for any group of officers, their shooting proficiency will be near maximum only for a short period of time immediately following training sessions. For the better part of the year shooting proficiency is lower than the lowest proficiency during the shorter training cycle. While the average proficiency of better shooters is relatively constant because better shooters have a lower loss of proficiency over time, it can be seen that the average proficiency of the poorer shooters during a 12-month training cycle is substantially below the average shooting proficiency of the poorer shooters during a short training cycle. In this case, it is the poorer shooters with whom we must be concerned, because the low point on the saw tooth (66.1 average) indicates that a substantial number of shooters are failing to meet minimum qualifications.

A comparison of the 4-month training cycle and 6-month training cycle indicates little contrast. However, the same basic reasoning applies. That is, it is not the averages which are significant here. The average of the better shooters, of all shooters, and of poorer shooters is only slightly lower in the 6-month training cycle than in the 4-month cycle. What is important here is the lower point of the saw tooth in the case of the poorer shooters. The indication is that a substantial number of these men are shooting below or just at minimum qualifications.

While it has not been indicated on these charts, it is believed, in keeping with the FBI's experience, as well as the experience of other agencies with short training cycles, that the upper point on the saw tooth remains relatively constant with a 6-month training cycle, but actually rises slightly with shorter training cycles. Figure B-6 on page



COMPARISON OF AVERAGE SHOOTING PROFICIENCY AND DETERIORATION WITH RECOMMENDED AND PRESENT TRAINING CYCLES

FIGURE B-5

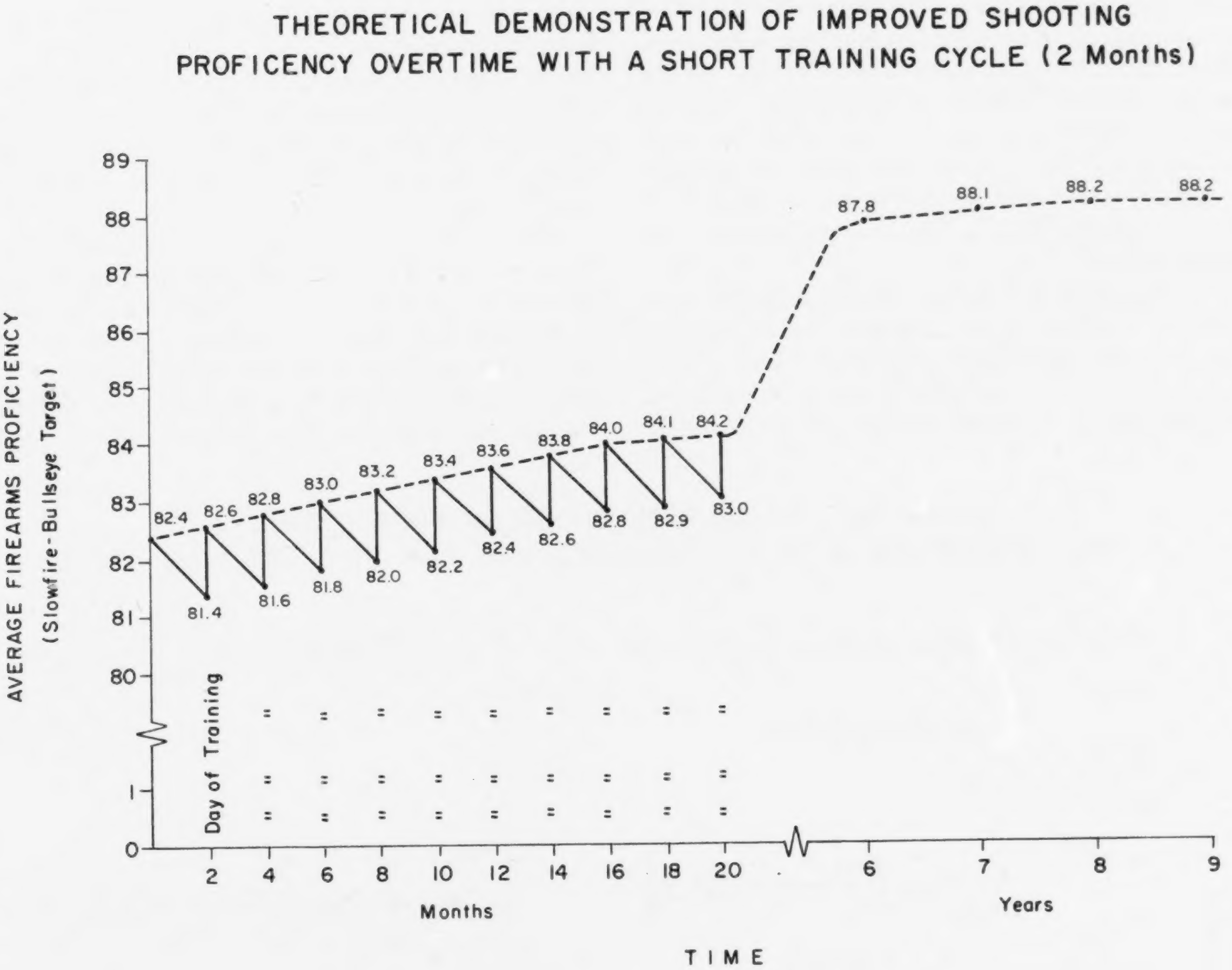


FIGURE B-6

210 and Figure B-7 on page 211 are theoretical, demonstrating this finding. Thus, as in the case of the FBI, a man's shooting proficiency increases for approximately 7 years before leveling off, when he is trained frequently, (i.e., eight times a year). Therefore, it may be said that, while the 6-month training cycle restores shooting proficiency to former levels, a 3-month training cycle will and a 4-month training cycle may increase shooting proficiency, over time, above former levels. For these reasons a 3-month training cycle is most desirable, but for practical purposes, considering the need to keep policemen on the beat and economy, a 4-month training cycle is recommended.

If the administration of a police agency values the lives of its police officers, if it is concerned with the safety of the public, in short, if it appreciates and recognizes the need for shooting proficiency for the protection of the police officer and the community, adequate firearms training programs will be instituted. This study indicates that a 6-month training cycle is barely adequate. A 4-month training cycle should be considered the minimum acceptable standard.

The findings of this study indicate that it is not the number of hours of retraining that is important, but the frequency of retraining. More will be accomplished and greater proficiency will be attained in six 2-hour training sessions each year than in two 8-hour sessions each year. More will be accomplished in four 3-hour training sessions each year than in two 8-hour sessions, and more will be accomplished in the recommended three training sessions each year (1 full day and 2 half days) than in the current two sessions each year. This schedule assumes, however, that there will be at least 2 hours of training at each session. The Chicago Police Department, for example, has three retraining sessions a year and their experience is that proficiency does not improve but is relatively constant. The probable reason for this is that their sessions last only about an hour.

Firearms Training in the FBI

One of the objectives of the comparative study of firearms training was to determine whether any of the 102 police agencies studied had a compact but comprehensive course which might serve as a model upon which to base a firearms training program. It was determined that any course offered in fewer than 40 hours could hardly be called a model. On the other hand, some courses are too long to be practical for many police agencies, and the needs of big cities may not be the same as those in rural areas.

The most comprehensive firearms training program identified in this study is that of the FBI. Many range officers regard the FBI program as an ideal model. Indeed, according to the comparative study it is seen that several municipal police agencies are trained at FBI ranges or by FBI range instructors or have based their entire firearms programs on the FBI training courses and methods. With this thought in mind and for informational purposes only, both the FBI new special agents course and the experienced agents firearms program will be described.

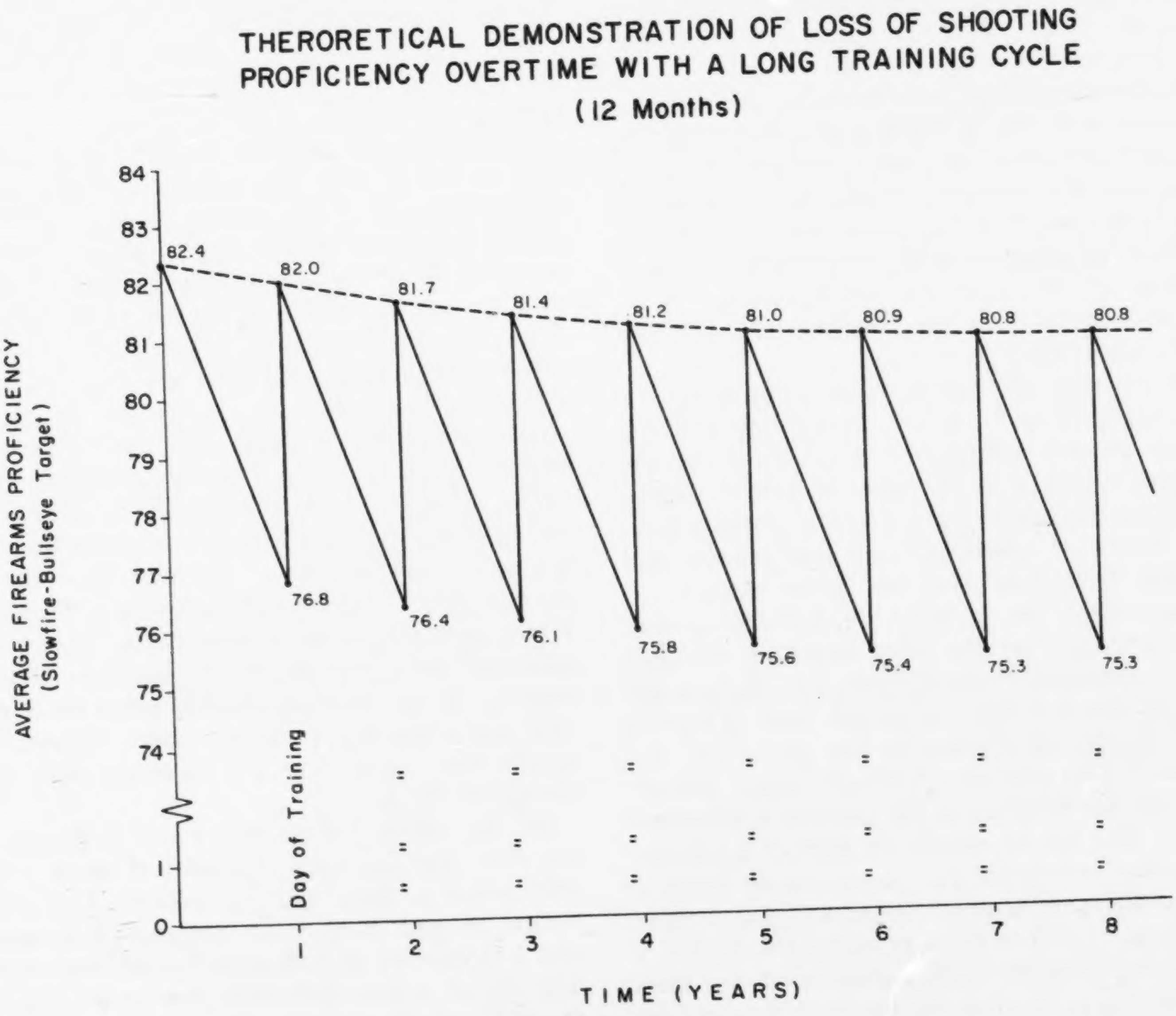


FIGURE B-7

The new special agent spends 11 full days on the firearms range at Quantico, Va. During this time he fires the following ammunition: .38 wad cutter 1,130 rounds, .38 service 170 rounds, .38 blanks 15 rounds, .30 caliber 100 rounds, .45 caliber 180 rounds, .38 super automatic 10 rounds, .357 magnum 10 rounds, No. 9 shot 65 rounds, 00 buck 10 rounds, rifled slug five rounds, gas projectile one round, clay targets 65 rounds. The first day consists of a review of fundamentals: stance, grip, sight alinement, trigger squeeze, breathing. Following dry firing special agents will fire single action from 15 yards on the Army L target, 50 rounds with both strong and weak hands. Following a lecture on prone, sitting, and barricade positions, agents fire single action from 25 yards on a silhouette target, 80 rounds prone, sitting, strong hand barricade and weak hand barricade. Following this, new agents fire single action from 50 yards on a silhouette target. The first day is concluded with the nomenclature of the shotgun.

On the second day there is a review of the fundamentals of revolver shooting, a lecture on position, a lecture and movie on double action shooting, dry firing the hip shooting course, hip shooting 40 rounds of ammunition from the seven-yard line on a silhouette target, scoring, a lecture and demonstration of the practical pistol course (PPC) followed by firing of the 10-round PPC and the single action PPC.

On the third day special agent trainees fire the PPC single action for score. This is followed by a lecture on the submachine gun, dry firing the Thompson and firing 20 rounds on bobber targets, (10 single fire and 10 on full automatic burst fire). This session is concluded with one practice run and one record run using two bobber targets.

The fourth day is spent on the rifle course. After a lecture on the rifle, including position, course, operation of butts, sights, etc., trainees fire one practice run and one record run. The rifle course consists of 20 rounds, five prone and five sitting at 200 yards on a bull's-eye target, five offhand and five kneeling at 100 yards on a silhouette target. The last 10 rounds are fired in 1 minute. This course is followed by a lecture on the shotgun, nomenclature and course. Agents then fire shotgun course No. 1, a practice run using No. 9, and a record run using 00 buck, consisting of five shots from the hip at 15 yards and five from the shoulder at 25 yards on five bobber targets. The instructor may call one or more targets at the same time to provide training in firing at more than one target on command.

On the fifth day there is a review of the fundamentals of revolver shooting, a review of double action shooting and positions, a practice run and a record run on the double action course, a lecture on the shotgun course No. 2 (skeet) and firing shotgun course No. 2. A memorandum is posted on the completion of the first week of firearms training. It lists the names and scores of new agents who have not fired at least 65 on all record courses.

On the sixth day there is a review of the fundamentals of revolver shooting, followed by the firing of 50 rounds single action on a silhouette target from the prone, sitting, strong hand barricade, and weak hand barricade positions. This is followed by a lecture on and firing of the exertion course. The positions of the double action course are reviewed and the course is then fired for record. The sixth session ends with two record runs on the single action PPC.

On the seventh day there is a review of nomenclature, safety rules, and positions relative to the submachinegun. The course is then fired for record using two bobber targets, firing full automatic in short bursts from hip level at 15 yards, and two magazines full automatic in short bursts from the strong shoulder at 25 yards. Shotgun nomenclature and safety rules are then reviewed, followed by a record run on the No. 4 shotgun course, consisting of firing five rifled slugs on a bobber target, two from behind a barricade at 50 yards, strong and weak shoulder, two from 25 yards, strong and weak shoulder, and one from the hip at the 15-yard line. Trainees then fire 50 rounds double action at 50 yards on a silhouette target from the prone, sitting, strong hand barricade and weak hand barricade positions. This is followed by the PPC fired double action for record. After a lecture on the electric target courses, new agents fire these courses (running man and multiple targets).

On the eighth day there is a review lecture on the rifle, positions and operation of butts. The rifle course is then fired for record. There is a lecture on and firing of the revolver pivot course and a lecture on and firing of the dueling course. The eighth session ends with two record runs on the PPC, one single action and one double action.

The ninth day begins with a review of the No. 2

shotgun course (skeet) and a lecture on the surprise target course (Hogan's Alley). A second run is fired on the No. 2 shotgun course with off relays going through the surprise course. Agents then fire the PPC double action for record. The ninth session ends with a lecture on handcuffing, techniques and mechanics of arrest, gas, gas masks and body armor.

The 10th day begins with a lecture on and the firing of the rifle and revolver at the running man course, a lecture on and the firing of the No. 5 shotgun course, and a lecture on and the firing of the bull's-eye course, 30 rounds. This course is followed by familiarization firing of the .357 magnum 10 rounds, the .38 super automatic 10 rounds, and the .38 detective special 10 rounds. The double action course is then fired for record and the session concludes with a lecture on and the firing of the night firing course late in the evening.

The 11th day begins with a discussion and presentation of arrest problems to be conducted in the combat village, followed by a critique on arrest problems. Following this activity there are three examinations: firearms, arrests, nomenclature. After a lecture on the gas gun, each trainee fires a long-range gas projectile.

Analysis of the New Special Agents Course

The qualifying score for trainees is the average of the record runs on all courses. A trainee must attain an average score of 60 percent or better before he is assigned to the field as a special agent. While this seems to be a low qualifying score, FBI experience has shown that some trainees have difficulty attaining this average. However, the firearms training program in the FBI is a continuous one (eight shooting sessions a year plus a full week of retraining every 2 to 5 years) and experience shows that the agent's scores will continue to improve until a peak is reached after about seven years of service. In 1968, all FBI special agents averaged 91.4 on the revolver course (PPC).

The quantity of ammunition fired during the training period is greater by far than that of any other law enforcement agencies studied, although it is doubtful that rifle and machinegun courses are essential or necessary for all police officers. The 11-day course is given on consecutive days and includes one entire evening on the range for night shooting. Firearms training on consecutive days is desirable and night firing is important, but it is felt that police agencies do not need 11 days of training, particularly where there are ongoing retraining sessions at least twice each year. Although the course is diversified, emphasis is on the revolver with special emphasis on double action or combat shooting, which is most desirable.

The variety of special techniques, such as bobber targets, skeet shooting, exertion course, electric target courses, running man and multiple targets, pivot course, dueling course, surprise course (Hogan's Alley), night firing course, and combat village are excellent training devices which motivate because they are practical and interesting. Many of these devices were not found in any other police agency which was studied.

The ranges and facilities at Quantico, Va., are unequaled by police agencies in the United States, thus illustrating what can be done with adequate financial support.

Summary of Field Firearms Program

FBI has eight firearms training sessions each year, four indoors and four outdoors. The 1969 schedule, for example, provides indoor firearms sessions in January, February, October, and November. Four outdoor sessions are scheduled March through September. The indoor course consists of 30 rounds fired on the Army L target as follows: 10 rounds from 25 yards, slow fire, single action; 10 rounds from 15 yards, timed fire, single action; 10 rounds from 15 yards, rapid fire, double action. All scores are recorded.

The four outdoor sessions are slightly varied, with heavy emphasis on double action combat shooting. At all sessions the following courses are given: Double action course; position shooting, single and double action; practical pistol course, single and double action; and defensive tactics. In addition, at the first session the techniques and use of the blackjack and gas equipment are presented. The second outdoor session includes shotgun course No. 2 and handcuffing, searching and transporting prisoners. At outdoor session No. 3 the course includes shotgun course No. 4, the submachinegun course and gas equipment. At the fourth session, shotgun course No. 2, handcuffing, searching, and transporting prisoners are covered in addition to the basic four courses. The use of chemical mace, which was formerly covered at these sessions, has been discontinued. The indoor courses are completed in about 1 hour. The outdoor courses usually involve a full day on the range. These sessions include lectures and reviews on the courses, safety rules, nomenclature, positions, techniques, and so forth.

The FBI has developed firearms training programs well designed to enable the special agent to carry out his responsibilities with safety to himself and to others. The courses are as comprehensive as any found in the firearms study and indicate an awareness and appreciation on the part of administration for this important phase of training. Not only are the ranges and facilities of the highest quality, but the range officers and instructors are among the finest. The FBI provides all range officers and instructors with a comprehensive 2-week instructors training course as well as periodic training courses. This corroborates the earlier statement that the best training program will fail in its mission without properly trained and qualified instructors.

The courses offered in both the new special agents school and in the eight field firearms sessions each year are well-rounded courses emphasizing the revolver and double action in particular, but including familiarization in a variety of weapons and techniques. In short, the FBI has excellent firearms training programs for the FBI. They are not recommended, however, for most police agencies.

There is a frequent suggestion by range officers of municipal police agencies that there is a significant difference between the FBI and local police in the manner in which their respective jobs are carried out, which affects the kind and amount of firearms training that may be needed. FBI agents in the field are aware at all times with what and with whom they are dealing. They are armed with a warrant or other court papers and they know exactly whom they are looking for and where that person may be. They usually operate in pairs and are in civilian clothes, which hide their identity as law enforcement officers. They are therefore not identified targets and are not as often faced with the element of surprise. The uniformed police officer is more a peace officer than a law enforcement officer. He is an easily recognized target in his uniform and must expect the unexpected at any time. He usually has no warrant or court process but must deal with every person he encounters on his beat.

The police officer, therefore, has greater occasion to use his revolver than special agents of the FBI, but perhaps less occasion to use heavier weapons. Of equal significance is the fact that FBI policy permits the use of the gun only in self-defense, thus minimizing the considerations of judgment. They simply do not use their guns, except in life-death situations. Police agencies usually are granted broader powers from State legislatures to use their weapons in other situations. With broader shooting policies the element of judgment (when to shoot and when not to shoot) becomes increasingly important. It is therefore necessary for police agencies to emphasize judgment to a greater extent in their training program. Generally speaking, it can be said that the broader the law on the use of deadly physical force, the more judgment training is necessary.

Small cities, of course, do not have the financial resources to support a program such as that of the FBI. The largest municipal police agencies may have the financial support, but their problem is compounded by numerical size. However, in spite of the excellent program of the FBI, it may not be necessary for local police agencies to provide equally comprehensive firearms training programs. It may be more reasonable to provide the basic revolver training for all and leave the heavier weapons, advanced and specialized training to specialists, such as emergency service or tactical forces.

The result of this study has convinced the staff of this project that a "model" firearms training program for all police agencies is almost impossible. A model revolver course may be feasible, but more study will be needed for this. One conclusion that requires mention, however, is that all police officers need comprehensive training in the weapon they carry, which is the revolver in almost all American jurisdictions. Those officers who also carry shotguns or other weapons routinely must also have training in those weapons. This policy is not the case, however, for the majority of police officers. To train them in such weapons is unnecessary except to the extent that they know something about the nomenclature for those situations where they disarm people of these weapons and must make them safe.

Appendix C—Biographical Sketches of Staff and Consultants and List of Suport Staff

The following is a biographical sketch of the principal staff members and consultants to the project. They are listed alphabetically.

Dr. Bernard Berkowitz.—Dr. Berkowitz is currently adjunct assistant professor and project supervisor of the police-family crisis intervention project of the psychological center at the City College of the City University of New York. He served with the New York City Police Department for twelve years and earned his doctorate in guidance and personnel administration from New York City University. He has written and spoken extensively on topics of mental health and police administration. Dr. Berkowitz served the project as advisor and consultant on the use of drama in police training.

Marvin Boland.—A captain in the New York City Police Department assigned to the police academy, Captain Boland was formerly executive officer in the Planning Division, where he supervised numerous research projects in police organization and management. He has had wide experience during 17 years as a police officer. A graduate of the FBI National Academy, Captain Boland holds a B.B.A. and M.P.A. from the Baruch College, City University of New York, and is currently working for the Ph. D. at New York University. He served the project both as general administrator and research analyst.

Dr. Gerald Watkins Bracey.—A graduate of Stanford University with a doctoral degree in psychology, Dr. Bracey currently holds the title of associate research psychologist, early education group, educational testing service, in Princeton, N.J. He was the recipient of two graduate fellowships, one from the National Science Foundation and the other from the National Institute of Health, between the years 1962 and 1967. He has also held the position of teaching assistant at Stanford University. Dr. Bracey served the project as consultant on psychological/psychiatric testing and evaluation of training.

Thomas P. Connors.— Mr. Connors is presently an assistant professor of public administration at Manchester Community College in Connecticut. Previous experience includes 24 years with the New York City Police Department, attaining the rank of lieutenant. He held the position of editor of Spring 3100, the official magazine of the New York City Police Department. Mr. Connors earned his master's degree in public administration at New York University and he was engaged in lecturing assignments at the department of personnel and the City College of New York. He was also involved in the preparation of many official reports of the New York City Police Department. Professor Connors served the project as editorial consultant.

John J. Cronin.— An experienced police officer, Mr. Cronin served with the New York City Police Department for 23 years, reaching the rank of lieutenant. He is a graduate of the FBI National Academy, class of 1956, and is currently an assistant professor in the division of law and police science at John Jay College of Criminal Justice, City University of New York. He is the recipient of numerous academic and professional honors and has held several teaching positions in both police schools and institutions of higher learning. Professor Cronin served the project as a consultant on criminalistics curriculum.

Leo A. Culloo.— Mr. Culloo has held the position of executive secretary of the New Jersey Police Training Commission since 1962, after serving many years as a lieutenant with the Jersey City Police Department. He earned his master's degree in public administration from the City College of New York. He has written widely in the police training field and has served as a consultant for State and national agencies. He has taught in two colleges and has directed three major Federal and State research projects since 1966. Mr. Culloo served the project as consultant in State police training council and commission activities.

Dr. Dan W. Dodson.— Professor Dodson is chairman of the department of educational sociology and anthropology at New York University. He received his B.A. from McMurry College, M.A. from Southern Methodist University, and Ph. D. from New York University. A member of the New York University faculty since 1936, he was awarded the honorary degree of doctor of letters from McMurry College in 1957. Professor Dodson edited the Journal of Educational Sociology and has written numerous articles on intergroup relations, education and social change. He is a consultant and member of many committees, commissions, professional and community organizations. Dr. Dodson served the project as consultant on behavioral science curriculum.

Roosevelt Dunning.— A graduate of Brooklyn Law School and a member of the New York State Bar Association, Mr. Dunning held the rank of lieutenant in the New York City

Police Department. He is currently serving as the commanding officer of the job corps police training school. He has worked extensively in the area of police-community relations, and has an extensive list of activities, including a fellowship, many department commendations, and several consultancies. Mr. Dunning served the project as consultant on minority recruitment, training, and motivation.

Ralph Green.— Holding a master of arts degree in education from Columbia University, Mr. Green is presently the director of the law enforcement training project for the New Jersey Police Training Commission. Until 1967, as a police lieutenant, he supervised the visual aids and television units of the New York City Police Academy, and in that capacity produced numerous motion pictures and television programs for police purposes. Three of his research studies have been published since 1967. Mr. Green served the project as consultant on movie film in police training.

Dr. John I. Griffin.—Dr. Griffin is professor of statistics and acting associate dean of the Baruch College, the City University of New York. He has authored several books and articles in the areas of statistics, urban studies and law enforcement. He has also served as project director of OLEA project No. 171 in conjunction with the New Haven Police Department. He has lectured at the Southern Police Institute, at foreign police training centers, and many other institutions. Dr. Griffin served the project as director of research.

Dr. Harold A. Lett.— Dr. Lett holds two honorary doctoral degrees and numerous distinguished service awards for his contributions in the areas of human relations and public affairs. Although retired, he continues to serve in a consultative role, bringing to his work over 40-years experience as a teacher, administrator, and leader in public affairs and employer-employee relations. Dr. Lett has served as a consultant to and a member of several commissions and his articles have appeared in numerous magazines and journals. He served the project as consultant on human, racial, and community relations curriculum.

Leo C. Loughrey.— Mr. Loughrey is an assistant professor of law and police science at John Jay College of Criminal Justice, the City University of New York. He is a member of the New York State Bar Association and earned a master of public administration degree from the Baruch College, City University of New York. He reached the rank of lieutenant with the New York City Police Department and has taught police science and law courses in the New York City Police Academy and in various colleges. Several of his articles have appeared in national journals. Professor Loughrey served the project as consultant on legal curriculum.

Robert E. McCann.— Mr. McCann is the director of training for the Chicago Police Department. A graduate of Loyola University, Chicago, and the FBI Academy, he received his master of public administration degree from the Illinois Institute of Technology. He has served as a consultant to the IACP, the International Police Academy (AID), and the Metropolitan Police of Washington, D.C., and has traveled extensively in the capacity of lecturer, panelist, and speaker. He has served on the education and training committee of the IACP since 1965. Director McCann served the project as consultant on recruit curriculum and rollcall training.

George P. McManus.— Mr. McManus was chief of personnel of the New York City Police Department when designated project director. He was designated chief inspector in 1969. His background includes many significant professional accomplishments at the local, State, and Federal levels. A graduate of Fordham University and the FBI Academy, he holds a master of public administration degree from the City University of New York. He is a visiting lecturer at the FBI Academy and at the International Police Academy in Washington, D.C. He has served over 26 years with the New York City Police Department.

Dr. Israel Pressman.—Holding a Ph. D. from Johns Hopkins University, Dr. Pressman is currently serving as assistant professor of operations research at the Polytechnic Institute of Brooklyn. He is also a consultant to the Advanced Computer Techniques Corp., in New York City. He has held positions with RCA, I.I.T. Research Institute, and Autometric Corp., working as an operations research analyst, and has been an instructor in physics and science at various colleges. Dr. Pressman served the project as consultant on computer-assisted instruction.

Marthe Quinotte.— Miss Quinotte is presently a counselor at Towson State College, Baltimore, Md., and holds a master's degree in counseling from Loyola College, Baltimore. Many of her previous positions have been in the area of personnel administration. She has worked as personnel director in the Department of Public Welfare, Baltimore; with Steward & Co., with Remington Rand, and with the U.S. Army. She has also taught at New York University and has conducted several research projects. Miss Quinotte served the project as consultant on professional counseling.

William J. Wetteroth.— A former captain with the New York City Police Department, Mr. Wetteroth is presently assistant professor of police science at John Jay College of Criminal Justice, City University of New York. He received a masters of arts degree in psychology from Brooklyn College and is completing his Ph. D. at New York University. While with the New York City Police Department he worked in areas such as teaching, personnel research, planning, and coordination. He has served as a consultant to the IACP and has been involved extensively in the areas of psychology and police training. Professor Wetteroth served the project as research associate.

The following part-time staff members of the study made considerable contribution to the work of the project. Their efforts are acknowledged and appreciated.

Michael Cummings, research assistant.— Mr. Cummings is an M.P.A. candidate at New York University and is presently working for the New York State Crime Control Council.

John K. Fulda, Jr., research assistant.— Mr. Fulda is a sergeant on leave from the Anderson, Ind., Police Department, studying for his M.P.A. at the John Jay College of Criminal Justice.

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Marie Morse, secretary.— Mrs. Morse is secretary to the research director.

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A special word of thanks goes to Miss Pauline T. Hines, who served the project as executive secretary and whose dedication resulted in assistance to the staff far beyond her responsibilities.

Appendix D—Bibliography

As a part of the research conducted during this project, an extensive bibliography relating to many areas of training has been assembled. While all of the entries in the bibliography were reviewed in the course of this project, no critical evaluation has been attempted. This bibliography may, however, provide a useful reference source for training officers and police administrators.

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Appendix E—Abstracts of Consultants Reports

The full texts of all consultants' memoranda prepared for the Police Training and Performance Study have been published in a separate document, not a part of this report, for use by various units of the New York City Police Department.

Consultants' Reports

- General Topics:
  - An Overview of Police Training—Gerald W. Bracey
  - A Curriculum Review—Harold Lett and Dan W. Dodson
  - State Training Councils—Leo A. Culloo
- The Chicago Police Department Training Programs—Robert E. McCann
- Specific Aspects of Police Training:
  - A Counselling Service for Recruits—Marthe Quinotte
  - Training the Minority Group Member for Police Duty—Roosevelt Dunning
  - Computer-Assisted Instruction—Israel Pressman
  - Professional Dramatizations—Small Group Discussions—Bernard Berkowitz
  - The Use of 8-millimeter Film Loops in Police Training—Ralph Green
  - Police Training in the Law—Leo G. Loughrey
  - Recruit Criminalistics Training—John J. Cronin

AN OVERVIEW OF POLICE TRAINING

(By Gerald W. Bracey, Associate Research Psychologist, Educational Testing Service, Princeton, N.J.)

This paper evaluates some present police training procedures; questions the validity of many practices; explodes some popular myths on the application of new systems in testing and training as they may apply to the police service. It presents an extensive critique on the present evaluation system for recruits and recruit training in the police academy. In the latter instance, the question is raised as to whether the training seeks to establish the recruit's capacity as a police officer, or as a subject of training, or whether it emphasizes the effectiveness of the training in producing a viable police officer.

In preparing this paper, the author takes a systems approach and attempts to establish the goals that training seeks to establish. In this frame of reference he works backward against the temporal sequence of selection, training, and evaluation and establishes the goals of the training program. In the process, he examines the training itself, the testing program, the curriculum, psychological aspects of certain phases of training against the recruits' background, the teaching processes in use at the academy, and also examines the evaluation system.

While the paper poses as many questions as it answers, it nonetheless effectively clarifies major issues in training and calls for a closer look at many practices that have had acceptance without adequate evaluation.

A CURRICULUM REVIEW

(By Harold Lett and Dan W. Dodson, New York University)

The police academy has great responsibility to spearhead the movement toward a never ending modernization of the processes of law enforcement. This review not only concerns itself with what is but gives equal consideration to what should and might be.

About lectures—the question is not whether or not to employ them, but how and by whom.

Of greater pertinence, is how the department perceives the status of training and the continuing role of the academy. If the role is limited, circumscribed and routine, rather than exploratory and creative, then little attention will be given to it by the rank and file police officers and supervisors, and the recruits as well will soon learn not to take it seriously.

Variety in training is important; a roster of distinguished and talented lecturers could be developed or a specialist in the social sciences could become a part of the training staff.

The academy has an understandable pride in the fact that a vast majority of the faculty members are from within the department. However, it is important to recognize that because of the nature of police work it cannot tolerate any form or degree of inbreeding through the process of excluding or minimizing the participation of instructional specialists recruited from outside the police ranks.

About roles—does efficient police training require that individualism be discouraged in the course of developing corps-consciousness; is emphasis being applied in carefully measured proportion to both areas and in a manner designed to achieve balance in the vast area of social awareness and skill? If not, do young men, who hopefully would be attracted to police work and freely respond to recruitment appeals, knowingly move into a rigidly disciplined area where organizational procedure takes precedence over creativity, intellectual development and imaginative enterprise?

In the area of human relations training, is such training designed to ameliorate community problems through greater knowledge and understanding on the part of the police or is the training conceived as a pacification program? Can police selection and training methods arm him with knowledge and moral courage, and protect him in their use, so as to stand above the passions and prejudices of the community, as powerless groups struggle for their inherent rights? Can this be done without taking sides?

Does police training deal with the dilemma of the basic right of the patrolman to hold and voice his personal political opinion and yet perform his public service dedicated to a support of the rights of all without fear or favor, irrespective of differing political views?

Police departments have embarked on programs centered in human relations units. Are these programs instituted with full integrity and executed through a department whose top administrative personnel demonstrate a definite and sincere commitment which is transmitted through a trained and equally committed field officership to a trained and receptive rank and file? If not, even discipline fails without such assurances.

STATE TRAINING COUNCILS

(By Leo A. Culloo, Executive Secretary, Police Training
Commission, State of New Jersey)

This report discusses the creation of commissions, or councils to direct police training toward more stringent standards. Despite the argument for the primacy of local autonomy over improved standards mandated by higher levels of government, the conclusion is that the councils will push police service toward higher standards. The report opts in favor of compulsory train ing programs on a statewide basis. Major disparities in council training programs are noted involving differing standards among departments, often within the same state, and the exemptions enjoyed by some departments from mandated training. Such disparities are condemned.

Curriculum development, a controversial issue, has been sadly neglected and there is a notable lack of police curriculum specialists in the United States. This important area is now receiving negligible attention from the entire police establishment, including the Federal Government. The urgent need is to develop multicurriculums for training programs. Such a concept is often needed in large departments like the New York City Police Department. Admittedly, there has been an increase in the time allocated to training and the subject materials have been broadened, but there remains for the recruits the moot question of relevancy.

A systems approach to training has been suggested but the greatest essential need, the police task analysis, is not now available. The last task analysis, previous to 1968, was completed as a W.P.A. project in 1933.

The attitude toward instructional staffs for police training is at best ambivalent. Besides the perpetual question about who in today's police service is qualified to instruct, there are questions about civilian versus police control, inbred lack of scope because of overly long assignments of training officers to the same training faculty, and the lack of discrimination in the goals of different training programs. In addition, the excessive use of part-time instructors has not been discouraged frequently enough in favor of a full-time faculty.

An extended discussion covers the dichotomy of central training facilities as contrasted with multiple facilities. The advantages and disadvantages of each are noted as well as the political ramifications. Research in this area is badly needed for the guidance of police administrators. Particularly noteworthy at this point, is the report's concern with consolidation of departments, a trend which the author believes to be irreversible. The relationship of college programs to training programs is reviewed in light of the great growth of college programs. The idea of a cooperative era in police training redounding to the benefit of the police service is propounded.

The tremendous disparity in candidates because of faulty personnel practices makes the classroom tasks of training officers particularly difficult. Such disparity caused by age and differing educational backgrounds must be given attention by the instructors and the administrators who should try to create homogeneous class groupings to make the learning situation more effective. In this regard, training facilities should not be used to teach remedial courses.

The advocacy of the civilian director versus the police director of training is declared specious because of a lack of research. The question is generally argued from the point of view of one's background, but actually there can be no answer because to date there have not been many civilian directors.

Today, the State training councils are in a position to provide important services to training facilities. In addition, councils are carrying out invaluable projects in administrative services for department, police cadet programs, psychological testing, scholarships, coordination of police education, and coordination of State training programs.

For the future, the State training councils, although in an embryonic stage, must collectively encourage and facilitate the adoption of nationwide improvement of entrance standards, curriculum development, teacher training, and classroom facilities. In all, 15 steps are outlined to achieve the training task.

THE CHICAGO POLICE DEPARTMENT TRAINING PROGRAMS

(By Robert E. McCann, Director of Training,
Police Department, Chicago, Ill.)

Chicago's police recruit training program was increased from 14 to 31 weeks to overcome insufficiencies caused by the preceding short time training program, and to shift, in some degree, away from a "trade school" concept of police training toward a more liberal and intellectually oriented stance. These decisions were based on the old program's lack of concern with person-to-person contacts of the police officer (group dynamics and individual behavior) and a preoccupation with procedural matters.

The change was not only quantitative but qualitative. The assistance of the Chancellor of the Chicago City College was solicited so that the services of the college could be used for police education and training. The result is that approximately 25 percent of the new 31-week program is accredited college work in four courses for which the recruit receives 12 credits towards an associate degree in the newly developed Institute of Public Service at the City College.

Impetus for the program came from the desire of the Chicago Police Department to improve the "police image" and to better accomplish adequate understanding of the ever-changing police role in the community. The Chicago Police Academy now makes extended use of psychological and placement tests, and, as an innovation, has introduced a work-study concept. Recruits receive uninterrupted field duty in different levels of service and command during the 9th, 16th, 22d, 28th, and 29th weeks of training.

The director notes as shortcomings the facts that the recruit is evaluated primarily on classroom performance, not on job performance. At no time during the 31 weeks does the recruit work alone. The probationary period of 6 months should be extended for increased observation and evaluation of actual job performance.

Home Study Courses were instituted in response to a desire of the Chicago Superintendent of Police to encourage extracurricular training activities and to use such studies for promotion exams as a motivational factor to encourage participation by the department's personnel. The courses have achieved both goals according to statistics showing the numbers of candidates for promotion who have taken the courses and how many have been successful.

To further implement the idea, the department has prescribed a mandatory home study course for all probationers upon completion of their police academy training. The result of the probationer's work in the course is used to evaluate him and chart his future within the department.

The home study program has been an internal development of the Chicago Police Training Division and as far as can be ascertained is unique in police training in the United States.

In 1962, the Chicago Superintendent of Police provided $7,000 to make a feasibility study of the use of closed-circuit television after a decision was made that there was a need for formal standardized rollcall training at the unit level. Shortly thereafter, the high cost of installation and construction difficulties negated the idea of closed-circuit TV. The second medium to be investigated was 16-millimeter movies, but costs were unrealistic and their versatility was questioned.

These two failures led to the investigation of the 35-millimeter filmstrip which proved to offer the greatest promise for a substantial and significant rollcall training device. The department entered into an agreement with IACP to carry out the program but the agreement was mutually abrogated when there was found to be a difference in approach between the contracting parties.

To date the department has completed 31 filmstrips and 18 animated strips have been purchased. The production of filmstrips has had a side benefit in encouraging local interests to participate in the production work through the contribution of settings in their businesses and services.

A COUNSELING SERVICE FOR RECRUITS

(By Marthe Quinotte, Councelor,
Towson State College, Maryland)

The extreme demands on the emotional makeup of a patrolman in today's world are vividly portrayed by the consultant who has served as a counselor for many years in both the public and private sectors of society. The tensions that the new recruit faces are outlined and the conflicting roles that he must play are defined. The effects of both are then clinically examined, together with their impact on the recruit and the peer groups with which he comes in contact. These groups include his family, his brother officers, his superiors, and the clientele he works with, both within and outside the confines of law enforcement.

Exceptional sensitivity is needed in understanding the many facets of the relationships that must be considered in structuring a counseling service in a police department. A complete scheme for a counseling service in the police training function is described with particulars on organization, personnel structure, the advantages and the disadvantages, the potential hazards, and the need for patience from all of the interested parties. The latter point is perhaps the most important to the author, who realizes that the program will stand or fall on the ability of the counseling service to be accepted.

TRAINING THE MINORITY GROUP MEMBER FOR POLICE DUTY

(By Roosevelt Dunning, Commanding Officer, Job Corps' Police Training Program, Camp Kilmer, N.J.)

This report centers on the lack of interest on the part of members of minority groups in joining police forces, the lack of rapport between the minority community and the police agencies, despite overt programs to obtain better rapport and better candidates for the police service. The report accentuates the shortcomings in police training, selection, and recruitment. The introduction of socioeconomic and ethnic problems of the minority groups is essential. The frequent lack of relevancy of curricula in police training to the problem areas of police service is pointed out.

The many negative influences on the thinking of the minority community in relation to the police service are outlined and the deleterious effects of seemingly necessary police personnel procedures are pinpointed. This combination of factors makes the relationships between the minority community and the police service particularly strained in the areas of selection, recruitment, and training.

Past programs, sponsored by both private and government sources, to overcome the problems created by these weaknesses are scrutinized with an eye to identifying constructive roles and possible solutions for the future. Two ideas that are unique involve counseling not only of the recruit but of his family and peer group, coupled with an introduction to the police service on a formal basis. The adoption of a system of integrated curriculum and teaching techniques to effect attitudinal changes among police trainees is recommended.

COMPUTER-ASSSITED INSTRUCTION

(By Israel Pressman, Polytechnic Institute, Brooklyn, N.Y.)

The growth of CAI research can be measured by the substantial amount of money being spent by government and private industry. Regardless of the pros and cons concerning its effectiveness, CAI is here to stay.

CAI is significant in terms of (1) individualized instruction, (2) its ability to readily measure the achievement of students and allow for curricula changes and evaluation, and (3) its capacity to allow greater use by more students of particularly outstanding teachers.

The computer can be used for drill and practice sessions, the tutorial system and the dialogue system, all basic systems of teaching. It can be used to indoctrinate new employees, update older ones and simulate situations involving the teaching of proper reactions.

At the present time CAI is limited in the kinds of presentations it can produce. The most common output is typewriter output.

For teaching purposes, experiments are being conducted at Dartmouth College, Stanford University, University of California, New York City public schools, University of Illinois, Brooklyn College, and the Naval Academy.

The computer languages for CAI are in a growth process with more than 20 now in existence. The computer language problem is one of the greatest roadblocks in the system of teaching. The greatest promise for economical use of CAI by a police agency would be in the capacity of cost sharing with other agencies. CAI is in its infancy and hopefully it will be guided by professional educators rather than by research oriented individuals.

PROFESSIONAL DRAMATIZATIONS—SMALL GROUP DISCUSSIONS

(By Bernard Berkowitz, John Jay College of Criminal Justice, The City University of New York)

Because police work with people, training must emphasize effectiveness in interpersonal situations. Interpersonal skills cannot be developed through techniques which rely mainly on verbal, didactic, intellectual methods. For recruit training, the need for innovative teaching techniques is underscored. One innovative method is the use of dramatizations and the involvement of the police trainee at the moment that he would be called into a real-life situation. After the involvement of different trainees in a play, the actors, trainees, and observers enter informal discussions to better understand the needs of interpersonal skills.

The differences between these techniques as compared to the "role-playing" technique, playviewing without involvement, motion pictures and filmstrips are discussed. In an experimental situation, it was established that it is most important to "train the trainers." After a thorough evaluation, the author urges the adoption of the dramatization technique for police training.

The existing dichotomy in police training caused by different roles a police officer must fulfill is accented. The officer must be adept in human relations skills and/or be ready to use his weapon in life-death struggle. Because of this conflict, it is suggested that the entire training program be coordinated with due consideration given to such conflict situations. Similar training programs are recommended for inservice training and command training, as participation by all levels of personnel is necessary for an effective program.

THE USE OF 8-MILLIMETER FILM LOOPS IN POLICE TRAINING

(By Ralph Green, Director, Law Enforcement Training Project, New Jersey Police Training Commission)

Motion picture film libraries have a potential for training that has not yet been realized. Presently, most of the films are 16-millimeter and the costs are high. The improvements in 8-millimeter sound film promises to change the economic base to a more reasonable level and the use of films should be greatly increased.

New marketing systems of film in cartridges and loops of 8-millimeter dimension further encourage the use of the medium because the projection equipment is less expensive and simpler to operate than 16-millimeter.

Film libraries should be moved closer to the bases of use; closer to classrooms and students. The police academy should engage in the production of 8-millimeter sound and/or silent film loops. Such custommade products can serve a larger audience and increase the numbers of topics and techniques to be presented in training sessions.

The advantages of film are found in the capacity to control time and space factors, edit to form, manipulate for emphasis or deemphasis, reconstruction of the past or visualization of the future, capturing the unique for posterity, and making model presentations.

The use of film loops allows a concentrated effort in a particular area that can be totally controlled by the instructor for greatest effect. This device is of particularly high value in police training where physical action has to be analyzed, rote materials must be taught by drill, observations must be made, processes carried out, and, induction and deduction films present raw material from which the learner must "discover" rules and meanings.

To properly implement the use of film loops, the entire staff, administrative and faculty, of the training facility must be involved in some way or another in order to stimulate ideas, develop proficiency in production and utilization of film loops and encourage expansion of the medium.

POLICE TRAINING IN THE LAW

(By Leo C. Loughrey, John Jay College of Criminal Justice, The City University of New York)

After analyzing the present state of training in the law at the police academy, the report proposes a restructuring of the course contents into several mini-courses and proposes a new law curriculum. The new curriculum is to place emphasis on the history and philosophy of the law and human relations aspects in teaching of law topics.

The importance of law to a policeman and his training is emphasized with a proposed program for inservice training and an appeal for training sessions that will be uninterrupted for any cause. Stress is placed on noninterference with assignments of police-officer-law instructors, who, if they are to be assigned to field duty, should be so assigned on an orderly basis and not an emergency basis.

RECRUIT CRIMINALISTICS TRAINING

(By John J. Cronin, John Jay College of Criminal Justice, The City University of New York)

Changing concepts of the roles of the patrolman and detective in criminal investigation demand a change in police recruit and inservice training in criminalistics.

The innovative suggestion that the patrolman will handle the preliminary investigation of certain crimes and the addition of certain criminalistics equipment to detective commands makes it incumbent on the police academy to update, strengthen, and extend its training in criminalistics. In addition, training techniques should be improved with reduced use of the lecture system.

Curriculum content as proposed is made more relevant to the practitioner with emphasis on the less demanding criminalistics techniques that he will be called on to perform rather than longer discourses on topics remote from the patrolman's and detective's assignments. Inservice training would be directed to updating both the detective force and the patrol force with their new responsibilities. A similar course is proposed for the supervisors of both patrolmen and detectives.

The creation of a new criminalistics unit in the academy is recommended.

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